

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

The annual dinner of the University of Chicago which is held during the week of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence will take place at the University Club, Dallas, Texas, on the evening of March 2, 1927. Tickets may be secured from William S. Gray, University of Chicago, for \$2.50 each. All alumni and former students of the University are most cordially invited to attend. The members of the Dallas University of Chicago Club will serve as hosts on this occasion.

### A SPECIALIST IN SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

The following statement is quoted from the *United States Daily*.

A new specialist in secondary education is provided for in the Bureau of Education, of the Department of the Interior, by an item in the appropriation bill for the department for the fiscal year 1928. This bill has passed the House and is now before the Senate.

Dr. John J. Tigert, United States commissioner of education, explained the need for a new specialist in secondary education when he appeared recently before the subcommittee of the House Committee on Appropriations at a hearing on the appropriation bill.

"The need for this new specialist," Dr. Tigert said, "is due to the fact that the field of secondary or high-school education has become very complex in the

past few years on account of the efforts made to keep pupils in school for longer periods of time. The great exodus from school occurs generally after the completion of the eighth grade where the system of eight elementary grades and four years of high school obtains. This was the system in vogue throughout practically the entire country up to a few years ago. In order to make the break between elementary and high schools less abrupt, the junior high school is being established in more and more places, but the organization and the years of the course included in this new type of school vary widely in different places.

"There are now about thirteen hundred junior high schools, and the number is increasing rapidly. There are not less than fifty-one different varieties of high schools in the United States, and the need for careful study of, and research in, organization and the methods of instruction is urgent. Partly to meet this need there has been formed a national committee on secondary-education research, representing organizations especially interested in secondary education, which is co-operating with the Bureau of Education; but the bureau must have a specialist who can devote his entire time to this field in order that it may give effective assistance in the solving of the many perplexing problems continually arising. There are now in the United States about 22,500 public high schools and 2,500 private high schools."

In the course of the hearing, Representative Cramton, of Lapeer, Michigan, chairman of the House subcommittee, asked Commissioner Tigert what would be the duties of the proposed specialist in secondary education.

"At the present time," Dr. Tigert replied, "we have a division of higher education, and we have specialists in the rural division and in the city school division who take care of elementary, primary, and kindergarten education. We have never had anyone who devoted his attention to the study of high schools, or what we call 'secondary education.' I have been checking the demands which have come to the bureau for help and advice, and it seems that we get more calls for service and information regarding secondary education than any other thing that is not now provided for, and so we are asking for a specialist in that field."

#### SCHOOL STATISTICS FOR THE YEAR 1923-24

The Bureau of Education has issued the following statement.

Data for the school year 1923-24 show 564,363 pupils enrolled in public kindergartens; 54,456 in private kindergartens; 20,898,930 in public elementary schools, including kindergartens; 1,473,145 in private and parochial elementary schools, including kindergartens; 3,389,878 in public high schools; 254,119 in private high schools; 61,858 in preparatory departments of colleges and universities; 35,232 in secondary courses in normal schools; a total of 3,741,087 in secondary schools; 245,669 in teacher-training schools; 664,266, excluding preparatory students, in colleges, universities, and professional schools. Private commercial and business schools report 188,368 students in 1925.

If enrolments in industrial schools for delinquents, schools for the deaf,

blind, and feeble-minded, as given for 1922, and enrolments in schools for Indians and in schools in Alaska are included, a total of 27,498,170 is secured. There are approximately 1,000,000 teachers for all of these schools.

Including outlays, the public elementary schools cost \$1,231,554,330 and the public high schools \$589,189,606. The private elementary schools are estimated to have cost \$86,812,435 and the private high schools \$44,145,553. Receipts for colleges under public control amounted to \$151,781,079 and for those under private control \$189,203,947. Teacher-training institutions expended \$22,474,-818.

If to these amounts there are added the costs of industrial schools, schools for the blind, the deaf, and the feeble-minded for 1922, and schools for Indians and for Alaskans, the total is \$2,386,889,132.

Public elementary and high school property is valued at \$3,744,780,714 and private high school property at \$396,616,100. Private elementary school property is estimated to be worth \$300,000,000. Teacher-training institutions have property valued at \$136,623,958 and colleges and universities at \$1,056,929,060, excluding endowments. Teacher-training institutions have endowments and productive funds valued at \$12,862,722 and colleges and universities at \$814,-718,813.

The total value of school property as reported above is \$6,462,531,367.

It is difficult to determine the number of elementary schools, as localities define the school in so many different ways. There were in use in 1924 a total of 263,280 public elementary and high school buildings, of which number 157,034 were one-room schools.

There are approximately 22,500 public high schools, 2,500 private high schools, 89 teachers' colleges, 114 state normal schools, 29 city normal schools, and about 67 private normal schools. There are 144 colleges and universities under public control and 769 under private control.

The ratio of adults—that is, persons twenty-one years of age and over—to school children, those five to seventeen years of age, inclusive, is 2.20 for the United States. For the Western group of states it is 2.68; for the North Atlantic, 2.52; for the North Central, 2.44; for the South Atlantic, 1.71; and for the South Central, 1.65. A child in the Western group has one more adult to support him in school than does a child in the South Central group.

Per capita wealth and per capita incomes are higher in states having relatively fewer children. This unequal distribution of children, of income, and of wealth is one of the big problems in financing our state educational systems.

#### THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES

The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States met at Jackson, Mississippi, from November 30 to December 3, 1926. The attendance was the largest in the history

of the association. Some of the more important actions of the Commission on Secondary Schools were as follows:

1. Of the 761 secondary schools accredited by the commission, 26 were dropped; 109 new schools were added, making a total of 844 schools accredited for 1926-27. Of the 844 secondary schools accredited by the association, 701, or 83 per cent, are public high schools. These schools enrol 89 per cent of all the secondary-school pupils reported by the association.
2. The commission renewed its willingness to co-operate to the fullest extent with the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education.
3. An appropriation was made for a study in the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States similar to the study made by the North Central Association known as the "Quinquennial Study."
4. The commission authorized the continuance of the practice adopted last year of sending certificates to the secondary schools accredited by the association. It was felt that the certificates mailed a year ago for the first time stimulated interest among the secondary schools.
5. One of the weakest phases of secondary education in the South is the lack of library facilities. A preliminary survey was made of all the secondary schools of the association with the ultimate hope of materially improving this phase of secondary-school work. A special committee was appointed to continue the study and work in this field.
6. The commission recognizes that the junior high school has come to stay. It further recognizes that radical changes must be made in the standards and organization of the commission if the junior high school develops as it should in the next decade. A second report was made by a special committee studying the junior high school. This committee was continued with instructions to make a third report at the next annual meeting. In order to allow freedom of development of the junior high school, the commission has had for two years a special regulation which authorizes the standardization and accrediting of the last three years of the high school, commonly called the "senior high school." Acceptance of the last three years

is permissible only when the senior high school is organized and administered apart from the junior high school.

7. As an extension of the action reported under No. 6, a co-ordinating committee of six members was authorized by the association. Three of these members are to be chosen from the Commission on Secondary Schools and three from the Commission on Higher Institutions. It is the purpose of this committee to make a careful study of the advisability of a dual system of college-entrance requirements. It is to answer this question: "Shall we ask the higher institutions to standardize twelve units instead of sixteen for college entrance, these twelve units to be taken in the last three years of the high school?" This is but another way of trying to provide some means of liberating the freshman year so that the junior high school may develop.

8. At the 1925 meeting of the commission the following regulation was adopted: "Beginning with the school year 1927-28, all beginning teachers and principals shall have not less than twelve semester hours of work in education." At the 1926 meeting of the commission this regulation was severely attacked. After prolonged discussion, it was voted that the regulation should remain as one of the standards and be put into operation.

9. For some years there was a feeling on the part of some members of the commission that teachers in the secondary schools should be required to teach in these schools only those subjects in which they had specialized in college. Since some members of the commission felt that this would not be possible from the point of view of administration, a committee was appointed for the purpose of making a thorough investigation of the subject. A preliminary report of this committee was made. The final report of the committee will be made one year hence.

10. For several years there has been some agitation among the private-school men to the effect that there should be a special set of standards for the accrediting of private schools by the association. This demand became so insistent that a year ago a committee was appointed to make a study of the matter. This committee reported. The report brought forth a heated discussion. Action on the report was deferred for another year. As a result of the study, however,

the commission recommended that one private-school man be added to each state committee. If this amendment to the constitution is adopted at the next annual meeting, each state committee will consist of five members, one of whom must be a private-school man and one a public-school man.

The next meeting of the association will be held in Jacksonville, Florida, from November 29 to December 2, 1927.

JOSEPH ROEMER

#### PROVIDING FOR A BROAD EDUCATION IN SOCIAL SCIENCE

At its meeting in December, the American Historical Association received a report from a committee which has been at work during the past year investigating the place of history in the school curriculum. This report urged the association to participate in a broad-minded way in a complete reconstruction of social-science instruction in the schools. A summary of the report as published by the *New York Sun* is as follows:

The council of the American Historical Association was called upon to decide whether it was "willing to sponsor an investigation whose end shall be a systematic program of social education for the fourteen grades of the public schools."

The question was presented for determination by a special committee of the council, which has been making a survey of history-teaching in the schools. This committee, in its report, told the council that "such an investigation and program will involve all the social subjects and that the resultant program may make serious changes in the content of history now offered in the schools."

The committee urged the association to accept the responsibility for marshaling the scholarly resources of the country to direct a social investigation covering at least five years and involving extensive research in all fields of social study.

"If the secondary school," the report declared, "becomes what figures seem to show it is fast becoming, a cross section of our society, the opportunity to organize a system of training for effective membership in society would seem to be one which social philosophers have dreamed about since the days of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle.

"If practically all except the mentally and physically unfit are to remain in school virtually to adult life, not only may leaders be trained but, in some measure, the whole body politic.

"Whether one believes, like some, that it would be possible by means of

education to reshape a whole society in a single generation or, like others, that society does not permanently or practically profit from education, this development would offer the opportunity to put both beliefs to the first real test they have ever had.

"There is here a challenge to the ideals and claims of all the social sciences. The great question may be not whether the way is open but whether the social sciences are equal to the task. Perhaps this opportunity may appeal to the American Historical Association with force sufficient to overcome any purely professional misgivings.

"There are many reasons why the association should accept the responsibility of comprehensive study of the social subjects.

"From the standpoint of the schools, training for effective social membership is the core of the curriculum, the most important single element. By definition, the various social subjects have important contributions to make to this common problem, and the purpose of the schools will be inadequately served if those subjects are not treated in proper relation to one another."

#### THE HENRY C. FRICK EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION

Volume I, Number 1, of the School Betterment Studies published by the Henry C. Frick Educational Commission, Pittsburgh, opens with a description of the creation and activities of a unique public-school foundation. The Frick commission may well be held up as an example to those who are seeking suitable ways of benefiting the public schools.

The opening paragraphs of this first number of the School Betterment Studies are as follows:

Mr. Henry Clay Frick provided a sum of money for the improvement of the Pittsburgh public schools.

This was the first instance in which a well-disposed citizen co-operated in a large way with the people of a community by making it possible to add to the facilities for public education certain things which could not be fairly provided by general taxation or from any of the regular sources at hand.

The Henry C. Frick Educational Commission was organized to administer the fund provided by Mr. Frick.

The first activity of the commission has been to send, from year to year, selected teachers from the Pittsburgh public schools to attend summer schools in the various educational institutions, bringing back from all portions of the country contributions for the benefit of the children of Pittsburgh.

There has been thus secured a multiple benefit. The contribution made in cash through Mr. Frick's generosity and far-sighted wisdom, and used toward defraying the expenses of the summer courses, was multiplied, first, by the previous preparation of the teachers and by their added experience and knowl-

edge thus acquired. The benefit was further multiplied by the co-operative contribution thus made by all the leading educational institutions to the improvement of the Pittsburgh public schools and through them to the schools of America and of the world.

Up to the present time over 2,400 teachers have been given scholarships by the Henry C. Frick Educational Commission, at a total cost of over \$200,000.00. So successful has the experiment been in every way that experts have said that they know of no instance in which the same amount of money has accomplished a like amount of good.

The commission commends this field as a most fruitful method by which any well-disposed person of means may do a maximum amount of good by increasing the effectiveness of America's most successful public-welfare institution—the schools.

The second of the larger activities of the Henry C. Frick Educational Commission has been to introduce to the high-school pupils of Pittsburgh a group of artists of outstanding personality and ability, asking each artist to present that phase of beauty of which his chosen art is an exponent and to have the results carefully noted, analyzed, and interpreted.

This experiment was undertaken to test the soundness of the following hypothesis: Youth, of high-school age, is more susceptible to the influence of ideals than are persons at any other period of their lives. The higher the ideals, the more strongly they grip boys and girls in their teens, and the more tenaciously are they held.

The minister of education of Greece said recently, "We train the emotions through the fine arts."

If it is true that boys and girls of high-school age are most susceptible to ideals and that the fine arts are the easiest and most effective approach to ideals of beauty, truth, and goodness, that fact is of supreme educational significance and importance. It might help solve the mystery of the vitality of the immortal ideals of Greece and prove a contribution of immeasurable value toward our American culture.

The experiment had two phases:

1. The introduction, to ten thousand high-school pupils in a typical American city, of a group of artists of outstanding personality, in order that these pupils might have the benefit of first-hand acquaintance with actual men and women of this high type.
2. The presentation, by each artist in turn, of some phase of beauty, as revealed by his own chosen art, in order that the pupils might sense the joy that comes from the perception of beauty and its expression through one of the fine arts.

The commission, through the co-operation of the school officials, arranged that each artist should appear before groups of pupils in each of ten Pittsburgh high schools, at a regular assembly period, as part of a definite program for stimulating and training the emotions through the fine arts. Each artist, there-

fore, spoke to a total of ten thousand pupils, speaking twice each day, during five school days. The entire experiment, to date, involved a total of fifty addresses to fifty thousand pupils. The experiment might, of course, be made on a simpler scale, with a single artist. The commission, however, deemed the matter of sufficient importance to justify a most thorough scientific test.

#### INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS

Two meetings are announced for the coming summer which aim to bring together educators from different nations. The first is the Third General Meeting and Second Biennial Session of the World Federation of Education Associations. This will be held in Toronto, Canada, August 7-12, 1927. The second is the World Conference on New Education. This is described in the announcement as the Fourth International Conference of the New Education Fellowship. The meeting will be held in Locarno, Switzerland, August 3-15, 1927.

Those who are interested in the first meeting can secure detailed information regarding the program and accommodations from Augustus O. Thomas, Augusta, Maine, or Charles H. Williams, 101 Jesse Hall, Columbia, Missouri. Information regarding the second meeting can be obtained by addressing New Education Fellowship, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1, England.

#### PROGRESS OF DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

The Rt. Hon. C. F. G. Masterman, formerly financial secretary to the treasury of England, writes in the London *Express* on a matter which will be of interest to American educators, who have long been accustomed to hear unqualified praise of the highly efficient classical education of the so-called "public schools" of England. His statement is in part as follows:

The list of the successful candidates for entrance into the Indian Civil Service has now been published. They have all been to various schools, and the overwhelming majority to the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge.

They are the men who in the future are to rule great states and territories, become lieutenant-governors, be responsible for those peculiar qualities of energy and confidence which have made the British Empire.

Hitherto they have been almost entirely derived from the "public schools," and the examination curriculum has been carefully arranged to suit the particular subjects taught at these institutions.

Yet what is the result? Not a boy has been successful from Eton, Harrow, or

Winchester. One, never two, have achieved entrance from some of the lesser public schools. But you read down a long list of the products of the new grammar schools and secondary day schools which in general the institutions for the "education" of the upper classes regard with contempt and disdain.

Stockport Grammar School, County School, Chester, Newport Grammar School, Cole Secondary School, Latymer School, Hammersmith (most of whose boys come by scholarship from the elementary schools), St. Olave's, Southwark (of a similar character)—these and similar institutions not only are training up the children of the poor in their own humble stations but are crashing into the special preserves of the upper classes, which have hitherto regarded themselves as secure in all the leading places in the kingdom.

This is only a small confirmation of a process which is continuing hardly noticed, to which from time to time I have drawn attention, and on which my criticisms have received replies from headmasters and others, but no satisfactory explanation.

By the "public school" I mean those great boarding or residential institutions, either preserved by endowments from past centuries or founded in recent times, all having a particular shape, color, and type, with a similar curriculum of teaching, with a similar devotion to games, staffed by masters drawn almost entirely from Oxford and Cambridge, and normally sending their clever boys as well as their dull ones to these great English universities.

The naturally and normally dull ones are irrelevant. They will drift into New Zealand sheep farms or tomato-growing in British Columbia. But the boys who are normally brilliant on entrance are the minority who matter, the minority who in the past went on to the first division of the home Civil Service which rules England, whatever government of any political party is in power; it rules the British Empire; it has provided most of the politicians, the lawyers, the distinguished doctors and surgeons, the future leaders of the church, the distinguished journalists, and many men prominent in business, and indeed the intellectual aristocracy of the age.

And now the fact remains that from causes which I cannot calculate and which would require a royal commission to discover, these great and wealthy institutions are passing into a backwater, divorced from the main ladder of ambition in England.

They are of the kind that would be called in America "private schools." For the most part, they hold themselves aloof from government inspection, which they despise, and government grant, which implies control which they reject.

Their success centers in the universities and the scholarships to the universities, which in the period of my boyhood were practically monopolized by them, save for the competition of one or two remarkable north country day schools, of which perhaps Manchester Grammar School was the most shining example, and the wandering ambitious Scotsman who desired to add an Oxford or Cambridge degree to his own distinctions of Glasgow or Edinburgh.

What is the position today? I have analyzed the scholarship results of the last few years. Increasingly, these schools of the rich obtain a diminishing percentage of open scholarships in comparison with the schools of the poor. "The kingdom of heaven suffereth violence, and the violent take it by force."

And the intellectual aristocracy of England is provided not by the products of these large and expensive foundations but by the developed day grammar schools of the north, and the new secondary schools of the people, subsidized by the state, in which the children come mostly from poor homes, and very largely in the free places provided in competition for the elementary schools of the working people.

#### GROWTH OF SUMMER HIGH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK STATE

The following is quoted from a recent issue of the official bulletin of the State Department of Education of New York.

After two years of department recognition, the summer high schools seem to be well established as an additional educational opportunity offered to the pupils of this state. During the summer of 1926 there were thirty-five registered high schools, as compared with twenty-two the previous year. There were 26,935 pupils enrolled, showing a gain of 38.7 per cent over 1925. Regents examinations were given on August 25, 1926, in twenty-five subjects with a total of 15,199 papers written, a gain of 82.3 per cent. There were 10,128 papers accepted by the department. As no pupil is allowed to take examinations in more than two subjects in August, this means that more than six thousand pupils saved one-half year's time in one or two subjects by passing these examinations.

When the summer high schools started, they were regarded by most pupils as an opportunity to make up one or more subjects in which they had failed and which they needed for high-school graduation or entrance to college. Probably the majority of the six thousand pupils who passed the Regents examinations were repeaters. The most notable growth of the year, however, is in the number of pupils who registered for the first term's work in one or two subjects. As nearly as can be estimated, about one-third of all the pupils registered during 1926 were in the latter class. In general, fifteen thousand pupils were saved one-half year's time in one or two subjects because of the opportunities offered by the summer high schools.

#### GROUP INSURANCE FOR TEACHERS

The Teachers' Club of Grand Rapids, Michigan, recently adopted a plan of group insurance, which is described in the *Grand Rapids School Bulletin*.

For an annual payment of \$28, each teacher receives health and accident insurance, payable \$25 a week after the first eight

days of disability for as long a period as such disability continues. If the insured dies, \$1,000 is paid to his beneficiaries. In case of serious bodily injury, like the loss of an arm or an eye, the compensation is from \$500 to \$1,000.

No physical examination is required, as the company considers employed teachers excellent risks. The summer vacation is covered in the policy. Withdrawal from the Grand Rapids school system automatically cancels the policy, the premiums already paid remaining with the insurance company. This appears to be fair settlement, since the insured has usually had protection for nine months. Seventy-five per cent of the total number of teachers in Grand Rapids had to be enrolled before the insurance became effective.

During the three summer months twenty teachers received total payments of \$2,639, five being compensated for accidents and fifteen for illness. Several other claims filed late in the period of three months aggregated \$1,000, making a total of more than \$3,500 in benefits, or about \$140 per beneficiary.

#### SCHOOL MARKS

The leading article in a recent issue of the London *Times Educational Supplement* is an attack on the marking system. After referring to the ambiguity of marks, the writer of the article points out as follows what he regards as the chief evil of the system:

Trifles are very precious to children, and their scale of values is entirely different from that of an adult. In schools where a persistent mark system is established, they attach a great, an overwhelming importance to their marks. I have known a boy jump for joy because he obtained one mark more than in the previous lesson. That mark was for him the outward and visible sign of an inward and intellectual progress, though, as a matter of cold fact, it may have been due to nothing more than an improvement in the teacher's digestion. And children are actively encouraged to attach this tremendous importance to marks both by the home and by the school. I have known a boy made a present of 10s. because on one week's marks he was placed third in the form list, and a boy given a bicycle because he rose from fifth place to second in a term of ten weeks. The encouragement which schools give to marks is too well known to need comment here. On the other hand, I have known boys to be thrashed at home whenever their week's marks placed them in the second half of the form. I have seen boys—and adolescent boys, too, not mere infants—cry bitterly on receipt of their weekly mark total, because they knew what awaited them at home when it was presented. No wonder marks become an end to school

children; no wonder they are scraped together by any and every means, and that the child's sole interest in the lesson is found to center in the marks he receives at the end. The wonder is that there is so little unfairness shown by children to obtain them.

By way of a conservative move in the direction of remedying the evil, the following suggestion is made.

The question remains: If marks are to be abandoned, what is to be put in their place? Let it be said at once that there is no system at present known to the human race that can assess with mathematical accuracy the value of a child's work in school. Any system which pretends to rank children in a list, first, second, third, is a fraud and a delusion; the work that would be necessary to complete one such list moderately free from suspicion would hardly be finished before the death from old age of the children concerned. The best we can attain to is an approximation. To place children in grades is as far as we can get with accuracy. It is impossible to say that A is fifth in his form and B is sixth and to have any faith in the placing; but it is moderately safe to say that A is in grade one and M in grade three, provided we are postulating only a very limited number of grades. How many grades it is possible to establish is for research work to decide, but in all probability three, or, at the very outside, five, is the limit.

If attainment alone be considered, the dividing of the children in a class into three grades does not carry the teacher very far. That is without prejudice to the fact that just as much time and care may be spent over a grading as over an arrangement in order of numerical marks; they must be, if the grading is to have any scientific value at all. But any grading must take cognizance of much more than attainment if it is to take the place, by reason of superior worth, of a mark system. Attainment is so dependent upon environment and special factors as to be in itself extremely untrustworthy. Native ability and energy, in so far as they are separable from attainment, have to be reckoned with. It follows then that, in order to have a reasonably comprehensive estimate of a child's work in school, we must have three gradings. Suppose for the moment that the figures 1, 2, 3 represent the degrees of attainment, 1 being the highest; that *a*, *b*, *c* represent the three grades of ability; and *A*, *B*, *C* the three grades of energy or effort. If, then, a child were reported to be *Aa1*, his parents would know that his ability was considered excellent, that he was working his hardest, and that his standard of attainment was as high as could be expected of him—in other words, that all was going well. If, however, a child were reported to be *Ca3*, the parents would know that his ability was considered to be excellent, but that for some reason or other (not necessarily original sin) he was not working hard, and that his standard of attainment was much lower than it ought to be—in other words, that something was wrong. A report of *Ac1* would indicate that the child was no genius but that within his limits he could be depended on

to do good work. The success of such a scheme would undoubtedly hinge upon the way in which these reports were compiled. If they represented no more than the teacher's personal opinion, they would be of very little value. I suggest that they should be drawn up as the result of (a) the teacher's opinion of the work he has seen, checked by (b) the results of standardized tests, regularly applied and objectively marked (here it is that marks can play an important though subordinate part), checked by (c) a system of special merit marks, by which any outstanding good or bad work can be noted (not measured), and checked again by (d) a reference to the boy's hobbies, outside interests, and habits, particulars of which would be accessible on a card index.

This sounds a lengthy and exhausting process, but it would probably take little more time and energy than any ordinary mark system, and it would insure that a school report would, without pretending to an accuracy that it could not guarantee, carry much more weight than it carries now.

#### A PAMPHLET FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

The Milwaukee Board of School Directors has published a very attractive pamphlet of forty-eight pages, entitled, *Our High School Girls*. By means of illustrations and interesting descriptions, the girls of that city and their parents are informed about the opportunities and advantages offered by the high schools. There are sections on such topics as "Building Character through Guidance," "How the High School Prepares Girls for Home Membership," "Preparing the High School Girl for Enlightened Citizenship," "Helping the Girl Choose a Life Occupation," and "The High School as an Avenue to Health."

The general character of the pamphlet can be seen from the following paragraphs quoted from the summary.

*Citizenship.*—The Milwaukee high schools view each girl as a future citizen who must be trained in the ideals and duties of citizenship. Through the study of governmental problems in the civics and history classes and participation in the functions and responsibilities of self-government in school organizations, the high-school girl is prepared for the increasingly important place which women occupy in the civic and political life of the community.

*Preparation for leisure.*—The tendency of modern economic conditions to increase the leisure time at the disposal of the individual and the growth of commercialized centers of amusement are two factors which explain the modern need for definite preparation for leisure. The purpose of this preparation is to give the girl self-sustaining interests which will enable her to derive pleasure and entertainment from worth-while pursuits. Both the regular curricular work and the extra-curriculum activities contribute to this training by broadening

the girl's interests, by showing her the enjoyment to be found in reading, music, and outdoor life, and by acquainting her with her own mental resources.

*The teacher as an adviser of girls.*—Through her work in the classroom and in extra-curriculum activities, each woman teacher in the Milwaukee high schools is virtually a dean for the girls with whom she comes in contact. Specially trained teachers advise girls in the selection of studies, direct the dramatic productions of the school, confer with the officers of the girls' clubs and act as advisers for the various organizations. This, however, is only a small part of the work which the individual teacher does in her capacity of adviser, for she is constantly studying the intimate needs of the girls in her classes and giving them counsel and guidance on their personal problems. The fact that there are from five hundred to one thousand girls enrolled in each of the high schools of the city indicates that it is only through the united efforts of all the women teachers that the girls of a school can be adequately guided and advised in their numerous activities and interests. Another advantage of this natural and spontaneous relationship between individual teachers and girls is that each girl can get advice and help from a teacher of her own choosing—a friend whom she knows and trusts and to whom she will reveal her most intimate problems.

## THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN SEVENTY-EIGHT JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CENTERS

R. M. TRYON, H. L. SMITH, AND ALLAN F. ROOD

The data on which this report is based were collected during the school year 1925-26. Bulletins containing programs of studies were requested from the superintendents of schools in three hundred leading junior high school centers throughout the country. Replies were received from 52 per cent.

From the mass of information submitted in the form of courses of study, programs of studies, and subject lists, only those bulletins were selected for final comparison that contained programs of studies which specified the number of periods a week devoted to each subject and which also classified the subjects as constants or variables.

For purposes of comparison, "the number of periods a week" was taken to mean the number of class sessions each week during the entire year. A subject given five times a week for but one semester was thus considered equivalent to a subject offered two and one-half times a week for a year.

Constants were interpreted as those subjects required of all pupils even where the multiple-curriculum plan was followed. Where the multiple-curriculum plan was in effect, subjects that were not common to all curriculums were, of course, not required of all pupils; hence these subjects were tabulated as variables.

Only seventy-eight, or about one-half, of the programs submitted were used. In order that the material should be homogeneous, it was necessary that all programs which did not specify the number of periods a week and did not classify the subjects as constants or variables should be omitted. Unfortunately, the application of this standard resulted in the elimination of some significant junior high school centers.

The seventy-eight junior high school centers from which comparable data were obtained are as follows:

Bisbee, Arizona	Hannibal, Missouri
Little Rock, Arkansas	Marshall, Missouri
Los Angeles, California	Monett, Missouri
Oakland, California	St. Charles, Missouri
Boulder, Colorado	Hastings, Nebraska
Colorado Springs, Colorado	Lincoln, Nebraska
Denver, Colorado	Elizabeth, New Jersey
Atlanta, Georgia	Montclair, New Jersey
Pocatello, Idaho	Moorestown, New Jersey
East St. Louis, Illinois	New Brunswick, New Jersey
Rockford, Illinois	Red Bank, New Jersey
State of Indiana	South Orange, New Jersey
Brazil, Indiana	Trenton, New Jersey
Marion, Indiana	Elmira, New York
Richmond, Indiana	Jamestown, New York
South Bend, Indiana	Niagara Falls, New York
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	Rochester, New York
Davenport, Iowa	Schenectady, New York
Des Moines, Iowa	Syracuse, New York
Sioux City, Iowa	Fargo, North Dakota
Arkansas City, Kansas	Jamestown, North Dakota
Junction City, Kansas	Cleveland, Ohio
Kansas City, Kansas	Warren, Ohio
Neodesha, Kansas	Muskogee, Oklahoma
Salina, Kansas	State of Oregon
Wichita, Kansas	Erie, Pennsylvania
Winfield, Kansas	Johnstown, Pennsylvania
Lexington, Kentucky	Monessen, Pennsylvania
Baltimore, Maryland	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Newton, Massachusetts	Wilkinsburg, Pennsylvania
Somerville, Massachusetts	Yakima, Washington
Wellesley, Massachusetts	Buckhannon, West Virginia
Worcester, Massachusetts	Beloit, Wisconsin
Flint, Michigan	Janesville, Wisconsin
Kalamazoo, Michigan	Kenosha, Wisconsin
Lansing, Michigan	Madison, Wisconsin
Duluth, Minnesota	Marinette, Wisconsin
Minneapolis, Minnesota	Racine, Wisconsin
Excelsior Springs, Missouri	West Allis, Wisconsin

Table I gives a comprehensive view of the subject matter commonly offered in the junior high school grades. All subjects listed in the programs of studies compared were tabulated according to subject groups. Constants and variables were tabulated separately.

TABLE I  
NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CENTERS OFFERING EACH SUBJECT  
OF INSTRUCTION\*

SUBJECT	SEVENTH GRADE		EIGHTH GRADE		NINTH GRADE	
	Con- stant	Var- iable	Con- stant	Var- iable	Con- stant	Var- iable
English.....	78	7	78	22	78	26
1. English.....	72	2	73	7	77	3
2. Reading.....	13	0	4	0	1	0
3. Literature.....	0	0	8	1	2	0
4. Spelling.....	19	4	15	5	0	6
5. Penmanship.....	30	5	24	12	2	19
6. Expression.....	1	0	1	0	1	0
7. Grammar.....	6	0	2	0	0	0
8. Composition.....	0	0	2	0	1	0
9. General language.....	1	0	1	0	0	0
10. Dramatics.....	0	0	0	2	0	3
11. Business English.....	0	0	0	1	0	1
12. Library.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
13. Public speaking.....	0	0	0	0	0	3
14. Word study.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
15. Journalism.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
Social studies.....	78	2	77	6	48	42
1. Social science.....	13	0	11	0	7	2
2. Social studies.....	11	0	12	0	6	2
3. History.....	34	0	29	0	1	8
4. United States history.....	14	0	23	1	0	3
5. World-history.....	1	1	0	0	1	2
6. Ancient history.....	0	0	0	0	4	8
7. European history.....	0	0	0	0	3	6
8. Ancient and medieval history.....	0	0	0	0	0	2
9. Modern history.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
10. English history.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
11. Geography.....	55	1	12	0	0	5
12. Commercial geography.....	0	0	0	3	0	5
13. Principles of geography.....	0	0	1	0	0	0
14. Occupational geography.....	0	0	1	0	0	0
15. Economic geography.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
16. Industrial geography.....	0	0	0	0	1	0
17. Civics.....	9	0	22	1	19	4
18. Community civics.....	0	0	3	1	8	4
19. Citizenship.....	2	0	0	1	3	0
20. Vocational civics.....	0	0	1	0	2	2
21. Current events.....	0	0	3	1	3	1
22. Next generation.....	0	0	1	0	0	0
23. Economics.....	0	0	1	0	0	1
Mathematics.....	78	0	76	5	45	35
1. Mathematics.....	50	0	54	3	34	13
2. General mathematics.....	3	0	5	0	2	5
3. Arithmetic.....	25	0	17	2	1	3
4. Elementary geometry.....	1	0	0	0	0	0

\* The figures for subject groups do not represent totals of the columns because in some centers more than one subdivision in a subject group is offered. All centers, for example, offer English, but some centers also offer reading, spelling, or penmanship.

TABLE I—Continued

SUBJECT	SEVENTH GRADE		EIGHTH GRADE		NINTH GRADE	
	Con- stant	Vari- able	Con- stant	Vari- able	Con- stant	Vari- able
<b>Mathematics—Continued</b>						
5. Algebra.....	0	0	2	0	19	21
6. Practical mathematics.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
<b>Science.....</b>						
1. Science.....	22	3	45	11	28	42
2. General science.....	14	0	17	3	11	4
3. Elementary science.....	8	1	23	7	10	29
4. Commercial science.....	0	0	5	1	0	0
5. Biology.....	0	0	1	0	0	0
6. Nature study.....	0	1	0	0	0	0
7. Physical geography.....	0	0	0	1	0	4
8. Botany.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
<b>Industrial arts.....</b>						
1. Practical arts*.....	68	16	60	36	9	65
2. Industrial arts.....	12	3	15	5	3	7
3. Woodworking.....	50	6	19	19	2	28
4. Mechanical drawing.....	1	4	0	3	0	9
5. General shop.....	3	3	5	8	2	26
6. Agriculture.....	5	0	8	6	1	2
7. Vocational agriculture.....	0	1	2	1	0	7
8. Broadening and finding course.....	0	0	1	0	0	0
9. Manual training.....	0	2	15	0	2	19
10. Machine shop.....	0	0	1	0	0	3
11. Sheet metal.....	0	1	1	3	0	1
12. Electricity.....	0	2	2	2	0	3
13. Printing.....	0	2	0	6	0	13
14. Wood turning.....	0	1	0	0	0	0
15. Forge.....	0	1	0	0	0	0
16. Auto mechanics.....	0	0	0	1	0	4
17. Plumbing.....	0	0	0	1	0	0
18. Metal work.....	0	0	0	1	0	0
19. Carpenter shop.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
20. Pattern-making.....	0	0	0	0	0	1
<b>Home economics.....</b>						
1. Home economics.....	55	15	57	26	6	61
2. Household arts.....	42	8	27	17	4	37
3. Domestic arts.....	4	0	11	0	0	0
4. Domestic science.....	0	2	0	0	0	0
5. Cooking.....	0	0	0	0	0	5
6. Foods.....	3	2	11	3	2	13
7. Sewing.....	0	0	3	3	0	10
8. Clothing.....	7	3	2	4	2	13
9. Cafeteria.....	0	0	1	1	0	9
10. General home-making.....	0	0	1	0	0	2
11. Home nursing.....	0	1	0	0	0	0
12. Housekeeping.....	0	1	0	0	0	0
13. Textiles.....	0	1	0	0	0	0

\* This includes both industrial arts and home economics.

TABLE I—Continued

SUBJECT	SEVENTH GRADE		EIGHTH GRADE		NINTH GRADE	
	Con- stant	Vari- able	Con- stant	Vari- able	Con- stant	Vari- able
<b>Home economics—Continued</b>						
14. Garment-making.....	o	1	o	o	o	o
15. Home management.....	o	o	o	2	o	o
16. Household administration.....	o	o	o	o	o	3
17. Home decoration.....	o	o	o	o	o	1
18. Home-planning.....	o	o	o	o	o	1
19. Vocational home economics.....	o	o	o	1	o	3
<b>Health</b> .....						
1. Health.....	75	o	74	4	62	11
2. Health education.....	12	o	13	o	10	2
3. Health science.....	4	o	4	o	5	0
4. Physical education.....	32	o	32	1	27	5
5. Physical training.....	28	o	30	1	25	5
6. Gymnasium.....	o	o	o	1	o	0
7. Physiology.....	6	1	6	o	o	2
8. Hygiene.....	9	o	9	o	4	o
<b>Music</b> .....						
1. Music.....	67	12	59	17	28	45
2. Chorus.....	65	7	57	14	27	36
3. Glee club.....	2	3	2	3	o	6
4. Orchestra.....	o	o	o	o	o	3
5. Preparatory orchestra.....	o	1	o	1	o	1
6. Advanced orchestra.....	o	1	o	1	o	1
7. Band.....	o	1	o	2	o	3
8. Instrumental lessons.....	o	1	o	2	o	2
9. Harmony.....	o	o	o	o	o	2
<b>Art</b> .....						
1. Art.....	52	11	39	28	8	49
2. Free-hand drawing.....	32	8	22	14	6	27
3. Drawing.....	2	1	o	3	o	11
4. Applied art.....	22	2	16	6	2	12
5. Art and design.....	1	o	o	o	o	0
6. Commercial art.....	o	1	o	3	o	2
7. Drawing and applied art.....	o	o	o	2	o	3
8. Drawing and design.....	o	o	o	2	o	2
9. Drawing and appreciation.....	o	o	o	1	o	0
10. Design.....	o	o	o	1	o	0
<b>Foreign language</b> .....						
1. Foreign language.....	2	12	o	52	o	78
2. French.....	1	3	o	11	o	11
3. Latin.....	1	8	o	22	o	41
4. German.....	o	9	o	36	o	66
5. Spanish.....	o	2	o	4	o	7
o	2	o	7	o	o	17
<b>Commercial subjects</b> .....						
1. Commercial subjects.....	3	3	5	40	o	59
2. Bookkeeping.....	1	o	1	6	o	6
3. Business practice.....	1	1	2	6	o	21
o	1	1	7	o	o	5

TABLE I—*Continued*

SUBJECT	SEVENTH GRADE		EIGHTH GRADE		NINTH GRADE	
	Con- stant	Vari- able	Con- stant	Vari- able	Con- stant	Vari- able
<i>Commercial subjects—Continued</i>						
4. Typewriting.....	○	1	○	16	○	33
5. Commercial arithmetic.....	○	○	○	5	○	18
6. Shorthand.....	○	○	○	2	○	○
7. Stenography.....	○	○	○	○	○	3
8. Commercial principles.....	○	1	○	1	○	○
9. Junior business training.....	○	○	○	9	○	9
10. Business methods.....	○	○	○	3	○	○
<i>Guidance.....</i>						
1. Guidance.....	10	○	14	○	9	○
2. Vocations.....	5	○	7	○	4	○
3. Vocational and educational information.....	6	○	7	○	5	○
	○	○	○	○	1	5

In all cases the names of the subjects were set down exactly as they appeared in the original programs, with the result that similar subjects are sometimes given in the table under different names. Some centers, for example, use the term "social science" instead of "social studies." Similar duplications occur in other subject groups. The spread of subjects is best observed, however, when these differences in nomenclature stand out. The extent of this spread reflects the present empirical character of junior high school activities.

The subject groups offered in the majority of the centers unmistakably indicate the tendencies of current curricular development. In each unit of instruction, the content of the course that gives its name to the subject group, such as English, mathematics, or social studies, has in many localities still to be fully determined, as shown by the "blanket" characterization of the first subheading in each group.

#### SEVENTH GRADE

The majority of the seventy-eight centers included in this survey do not offer elective subjects in the seventh grade. This fact suggests wide agreement with the plan in vogue in Rochester, New York, where the seventh grade is regarded as a transition period. According to the Rochester report, "the seventh grade is essentially a

period of adjustment, when the pupils become acquainted with the significance of the junior high school and the spirit of the new institution in which they find themselves."<sup>1</sup> In this grade all pupils follow the same curriculum, and the work is regarded as in the nature of a tryout. A slight modification of this plan is followed in Detroit, where "no differentiation is provided for in the seventh grade except in so far as offering shopwork and mechanical drawing to the boys and home economics to the girls constitutes differentiation."<sup>2</sup>

While variables are not offered in the seventh grade in the majority of the centers, in a number of systems such subjects as science, foreign languages, and commercial studies are offered in the seventh grade either as electives or as constants. Here is evidence of the transfer of important units of instruction from the senior high school to the junior high school, which is regarded by most authorities on the junior high school movement as one of its chief characteristics. These subjects have not as yet been pushed down as far as the seventh grade to any great extent. It should be added, however, that there is a distinct tendency in this direction. Science already appears as a constant in this grade in a considerable number of junior high school systems. Of the seventy-eight centers, twenty-two, or 28 per cent, offer science as a constant in the seventh grade. Of these twenty-two centers, nine continue this subject in the other two grades of the junior high school. Six centers offer science as a constant in the seventh grade only, and one offers it in the seventh and ninth grades but not in the eighth grade. Science is offered as a variable in the seventh grade by three centers.

The seventh grade has been pretty generally looked upon as the place for exploratory subjects, which should, however, be progressively studied through Grades VIII and IX. In view of this fact, it is believed that the tendency to add science to the group of subjects required in the seventh grade is of more than passing significance.

Foreign languages and commercial subjects also seem destined

<sup>1</sup> *The Junior High Schools of Rochester, New York*, p. 30. Rochester, New York: Board of Education, 1923.

<sup>2</sup> *Detroit Educational Bulletin*, VI (October, 1922), 13.

for the seventh-grade curriculum, but they are likely to be offered as electives to pupils who can do more work than is provided within the limits of the "core curriculum."<sup>1</sup>

In the social-studies group, geography seems to be the most popular subject in the seventh grade. It is listed as a seventh-grade constant in fifty-five of the seventy-eight programs. Both geography and history appear in forty-nine programs. United States history is most commonly given. Three periods a week are usually devoted to history and four to geography, although the average for the social-studies group as a whole is six periods a week. Only nine centers offer civics in the seventh grade.

It is an interesting fact that in about one-third of the seventy-eight centers the separate subjects which comprise the social-studies group are not designated. There is reason to believe that in these centers this unit of instruction is labeled "social science" or "social studies" for administrative purposes rather than because the subjects have been welded together into a common course of study. The textbooks that provide material for this course in the seventh grade clearly support the belief that unification of subject matter in the social-studies field has not been achieved. Attempts at unification have been made and are being tried out, but as yet there is little agreement as to the practicability of such an experiment. At all events, the evidence produced by this survey points clearly to history and geography as the elements which in the seventh grade comprise the social studies.

#### EIGHTH GRADE

The exploratory character of the constant subjects comprising the typical curriculum of the seventh grade has already been mentioned, as well as the tendency to enrich this curriculum by the introduction of certain subjects that were formerly confined, in the main, to the senior high school. In the second year of the junior high school appears the third of the five principles that underlie the

<sup>1</sup> "The core curriculum is made up," says James M. Glass, consulting director of junior high schools for the state of Florida, "of those subjects which are important enough to be offered in every grade of the junior high school and which serve to give continuity to the work done throughout the school system."

reorganization of the junior high school curriculum—the principle of differentiation.<sup>1</sup>

Table I shows that foreign languages and commercial subjects are offered as variables in the eighth grade in the majority of the seventy-eight junior high school centers included in this study. The offering of these subjects as variables in the eighth-grade curriculums of so many centers suggests the strength of a tendency already noted, namely, the tendency to adapt certain subjects from the upper unit of the secondary school to the lower unit and to encourage differentiation at an early age. Formerly, this principle of differentiation was the exclusive property of the senior high school.

Even more important, if possible, than the introduction into the eighth grade of foreign languages and commercial subjects as variables is the evidence that science has been adopted as a constant in the eighth grade.

The social studies in the eighth grade are found to take on a somewhat different character from that which they possess in the seventh grade. There is still apparently a large number of centers which restrict their work in social science in the eighth grade to history. History is listed as taught in fifty-two, or 67 per cent, of the seventy-eight centers. While geography is one of the two most important social studies in the seventh grade, civics shows a tendency to receive greater emphasis in the eighth grade. Geography is offered in but fourteen centers, while civics is offered in twenty-six. That there is a growing tendency to introduce elementary community civics along with history in the eighth grade is reflected in the heavy sales of textbooks in this subject. The conclusion seems justified that there is a general lack of agreement among junior high school authorities as to the exact nature of the subject matter appropriate to the newer social-science courses and as to the proper place of these courses in the curriculum. The evidence which supports this conclusion is summarized in Table I.

<sup>1</sup> R. L. Lyman, "Principles Underlying the Reorganization of the Curriculum with Special Reference to the New English Program," in *Course of Lectures on the Junior High School*, p. 28. Chicago: Board of Education, 1924.

## NINTH GRADE

In an address before the National Education Association in 1923, James M. Glass pointed out that "the isolation of administrative units, particularly the elementary and high school units," is the chief indictment of the 8-4 system. "The primary objective of the junior high school as the unit of transition," he said, "is articulation."

The vital fact revealed by Table I is the distinct trend toward articulation of subject matter within the junior high school unit. Certainly the opportunity for articulation inheres in the very nature of the subject groups that are constant for each grade. The similarity of the subject groups in the ninth grade and the subject groups in the eighth grade is at once obvious. The major units of instruction in these grades bear exactly the same names.

The tendency to construct a continuous and articulated curriculum for the junior high school is clearly indicated by a practice common in the majority of the leading junior high school centers, namely, that of offering English, social studies, mathematics, and health as ninth-year constants. There is also evident a tendency to require science, industrial arts, home economics, music, and art in the final grade of the junior high school, although only a minority of the leading centers seem now to require these subjects.<sup>1</sup> Thus, as Mr. Glass puts it, "the principle of continuity finds its application even in spite of opposing conditions." Until the majority of the leading centers offer science, practical arts, and fine arts as constants in the ninth grade, there cannot be said to be a genuine core curriculum.

The trend toward articulation is held back, it appears, by traditional influences that can only be overcome by a wider acceptance of the junior high school idea. Notwithstanding these influences, there has been considerable progress since Lewis wrote that "there never has been and is not now any co-operation between grammar school and high school."<sup>2</sup> Already the essential character of the so-called

<sup>1</sup> Table I shows that, with the exception of science and music, this tendency still appears to be fairly slight.

<sup>2</sup> Quoted by Harlan Cameron Hines, *Junior High School Curricula*, p. 3. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924.

"grammar" grades has been transformed even where the junior high school as the first unit of the new secondary school has not been definitely adopted.

The frequency of science as a constant in the ninth grade does not appear to be high enough to place it in the list of constants, but it is high enough to indicate that science is likely to be one of the constants of the core curriculum offered continuously and progressively throughout the three junior high school grades.

Foreign languages in the ninth grade are more common than might be supposed. All the seventy-eight centers include foreign language as a variable. To refute the false prophets who predict the early wasting away of Latin, it can be asserted that in 85 per cent of the leading junior high school centers Latin is offered in this grade. French is offered in 53 per cent of these centers. No other foreign languages appear in the majority of the programs compared.

In accordance with the educational aims of the junior high school movement, practical arts and commercial studies are widely offered electives in the ninth grade. In the latter group, typewriting is the most popular.

Civics and community civics lead among the social studies listed as constants by the majority of the centers. There is a wide assortment of social studies offered as variables in the ninth grade.

The frequency of health in the ninth grade is noteworthy. The inclusion of health as a constant in all grades reflects the salutary guidance of Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 35 for the year 1918, entitled, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, in which health is recommended as the first of the cardinal subjects. It is not clear from the programs considered how much emphasis is given to the study of physiology and hygiene as distinguished from physical training. It does seem that in most centers physical education or physical training is offered. It is significant that health is offered as a ninth-grade constant in more centers than is any other subject except English.

#### A COMPOSITE PROGRAM OF STUDIES

Table II presents a composite program of studies for junior high schools, based on practices in the seventy-eight junior high school

centers contributing data for this survey. This composite program is made up of subjects which appeared in a majority of the seventy-eight programs. No subject has been included as a constant that is not offered as a constant in more than one-half of the participating centers. No subject has been included as a variable which is not offered either as a constant or as a variable in a majority of the centers. In the ninth-grade list constants offered in a minority of the centers have been rated as variables.

TABLE II  
A PROGRAM OF STUDIES FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL BASED ON PRACTICES  
IN SEVENTY-EIGHT CENTERS

Average Number of Periods a Week	Average Number of Periods a Week	Average Number of Periods a Week
Seventh grade:	Eighth grade:	Ninth grade:
English*.....	English.....	English.....
Social studies*..	Social studies...	Social studies...
Mathematics...	Mathematics...	Mathematics...
Industrial arts..	Home economics	Health.....
Home economics	Industrial arts..	Foreign
Health.....	Health.....	language†....
Music.....	Science.....	Industrial arts†.
Art.....	Music.....	Home
	Art.....	economics†...
	Foreign	Commercial
	language†....	subjects†....
	Commercial	Science†....
	subjects†....	Music†.....
		Art†.....

\* Each of these subject groups has more than five periods a week because it comprehends two or more branches.

† Variable.

The subjects are listed in this composite program in the order of relative emphasis as indicated by the amount of time devoted to each subject. English, for example, is ranked first in the seventh grade, as also in the eighth and ninth grades, because the aggregate number of periods a week devoted to this subject in the seventy-eight centers contributing data is greater than the aggregate number of periods devoted to social studies (ranked second). In like manner, the aggregate number of periods a week is greater for social studies than for mathematics (ranked third), and so on.

## A STUDY OF THE CAUSES OF HIGH-SCHOOL FAILURES

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Most of the studies of failures in the high school have been made from the point of view of the teacher. Undoubtedly, some of these studies have contributed to better curriculums, pupil guidance, and pupil welfare. The accuracy of the conclusions reached is determined to a great extent by the teacher's knowledge and understanding of the pupil and his experiences. Snap judgments as to why a pupil failed are usually far from constructive and scientific. Educational leaders in certain American cities, notably Dallas and Seattle, have made a scientific approach to the study of failures from the teacher's point of view.

The point of view of the pupil must be known if scientific conclusions are to be reached. However painstaking the teacher may be in seeking to ascertain the causes of a pupil's failure, she often does not discover the real reasons unless she gains the confidence of the pupil. The expert pupil adviser or counselor occupies a very strategic position in the high school in getting into close contact with the pupil. The average high school, however, does not employ these experts and must find other methods of gaining a knowledge of the pupil's point of view. The pupil's opinion may be very faulty, but no one will question the assertion that, in some respects, the opinion of the pupil is more accurate than the opinion of the teacher. It is simple enough to learn that a pupil's failure in a given subject may be due to low intelligence, poor foundation, some physical malady, etc., but what teacher lists "dislike for the teacher" or "the teacher's failure to explain" as a cause of a pupil's failure? If the pupil tells just what he believes to be the causes of his low marks, he will probably list items that the teacher never dreamed of as contributing to his failure. Hence, the only avenue of approach to certain causes of failure is through the sincere expressions of the pupil.

During the school year 1925-26 the writer directed a study of

failures in the North Side High School, Fort Worth, Texas, first, from the point of view of the teacher and, second, from the point of view of the pupil. This study resulted in some data very helpful to both teachers and pupils, although no claims are set up as to highly scientific results. It is of value largely in that it suggests that conclusions should be based on something broader than the opinion of the teacher. The pupil's opinion should be considered to some extent. What the child is thinking very largely determines the results of his work in school. The tide of adversity in the home is often so strong as to sweep the brilliant high-school pupil into failure and despondency. The teacher may interpret his attitude as indifference and lack of effort. There are often causes more fundamental than those assigned by the teacher. The influences bearing strongest on the pupil determine in no small measure the outcome of his work in school. When the modern high school provides the means for discovering these influences and for obtaining an X-ray photograph of the mind of the high-school pupil, more scientific conclusions may be reached as to the factors contributing to pupil failures. The fact that at many points there is little agreement between the opinions of the teachers and the opinions of the pupils as to the causes of failure indicates that a sound method for the appraisal of these conflicting opinions should be set up.

For several years it has been the practice of the principal of the North Side High School, Fort Worth, so far as time permits, to interview the individual pupils who fail. The teachers report all failures and the causes of failure as they see them. Many of the interviews gain the confidence of the pupil to the extent that he divulges factors contributing to failure unknown to the teacher. For example, the work of a boy about fifteen years of age who was in the second year of the high school and had a fair scholastic record dropped below the passing mark within a fortnight. His teachers did not locate the hidden reason for this reversal of his conduct. Some reported "lack of ambition and purpose." The boy confided in the principal that unusual circumstances at home made it necessary for him to depend on himself for support. This revelation was contrary to the teachers' appraisal of the case and called for different treatment.

Since the lack of time and the scant amount of skilled help for advisory work precluded extensive personal interviews, an effective

plan for group interviews was the only alternative. The extent to which such a plan elicits the sincere opinion of the pupil as to the cause of his failure determines its value. Few pupils in the high school will divulge such an opinion unless they are convinced that the dominant aim is to serve the pupils by giving attention to their points of view. The first step, then, is to convince the pupils that the purpose of the interviews is to benefit them. The essential point is to assure the pupils that their names are not wanted and that they

TABLE I  
CAUSES OF FAILURE AS STATED BY PUPILS

Cause of Failure	Fre-quency	Cause of Failure	Fre-quency
Lack of home study.....	78	No knowledge of how to study.....	29
Dislike the subject.....	76	Lack of time.....	26
Little studying.....	70	Outside work.....	24
Discouraged.....	66	Not made to prepare lessons.....	16
Insufficient effort.....	58	Worry over studies.....	12
Dislike the teacher.....	58	Late entrance.....	12
Timid about answering.....	53	No chance to recite.....	12
Slow answering.....	50	Too many subjects.....	12
No interest.....	45	Laziness.....	11
Idleness.....	44	Home conditions.....	9
Poor concentration.....	44	Social activities.....	6
Poor foundation.....	40	Poor health.....	6
Irregular attendance.....	39	Lack of sleep.....	3
Teacher fails to explain.....	30	No opinion.....	4

may feel free to speak their minds. High-school pupils are suspicious of any school proposition which requires their signatures. The first prerequisite in winning the average high-school pupil to the support of any school project is to find an approach which will convince him that the plan is free from ulterior designs. Thus convinced, the majority of high-school pupils will freely and sincerely state their opinions.

Group conferences were held, with about twenty pupils in each group. Nothing was withheld from the pupils. They were frankly told that the principal and the teachers very often make inaccurate appraisals as to the causes of failure and that the pupil's opinion in some instances is more correct. The common arguments for reducing failures, such as the expense to the community and to the pupil, the discouragement of the pupil, and crowded schoolrooms,

were definitely stated. Stress was placed on the opinion that the fault was not so much with the pupil as with the curriculum and other deficiencies in the high school and that the purpose of the study was to discover the outstanding causes of failure that the remedy might be applied for the good of the greatest number. After this explanation, the pupils were asked to check a list of possible causes of failure. Table I shows the causes of failure during the first six weeks of the second semester of the school year 1925-26 as stated by the pupils. Approximately two hundred pupils failed in one or more subjects. Table II shows the causes of failure as stated by the teachers.

TABLE II  
CAUSES OF FAILURE AS STATED BY TEACHERS

Cause of Failure	Frequency	Cause of Failure	Frequency
Irregular attendance.....	84	Too many subjects.....	5
Failure on tests.....	78	Lost books.....	4
Lack of study generally.....	63	Immaturity.....	4
Lack of effort.....	58	Reading ability poor.....	4
Mentally slow.....	56	Outside work.....	3
Lack of home study.....	37	Work elective.....	3
Poor foundation.....	31	Lack of confidence.....	3
Laziness.....	29	Social activities.....	2
Poor study habits.....	26	Depends on others.....	2
Failure to hand in written work.....	25	Incorrect habits in typewriting.....	2
Idleness.....	15	Lack of sleep.....	2
Lack of interest.....	14	Cheating on tests.....	2
Poor health.....	11	New work and surroundings.....	1
Late entrance.....	10	Overconfidence.....	1
Carelessness.....	7	Poor concentration.....	1
Inattention.....	6	Change of classes.....	1
Physical defects.....	5	Came to class without book.....	1
Home conditions.....	5	Too much athletics.....	1

#### CONCLUSIONS

1. While the study here reported was confined to one high school, the data seem to show that the opinions of the teacher and the pupil as to the causes of failure conflict at many points. While it would be unreasonable to conclude that the pupil's opinion should predominate at every point, too often the principal and the teacher do not base their conclusions on an inside view of the situation.

2. A study of failures from the point of view of the pupils as well as from the point of view of the teachers is feasible and can be

carried out in high schools with meager equipment as well as in those with adequate facilities and with a competent director in charge.

3. Such a study is essential to proper pupil adjustment in the high school, and the social and financial value of a study of this type throughout the nation is beyond measure. Since the public school exists primarily for the pupil, the school must be adjusted to the pupil instead of the pupil to the school. When approximately one-third of the pupils failing in a high school report "dislike the teacher" as one of the major reasons for failing, another one-third report "discouraged," and somewhat less than one-half report "dislike the subject," a grave situation exists which should challenge the best thought of every educator. Discouragement as a factor in the failure of the pupil will largely vanish with the adjustment of the incompatibility between teacher and pupil and between the curriculum and the pupil, because this incompatibility is the major source of the discouragement. That this incompatibility is real is evidenced by the fact that the major reasons assigned by the pupils were not mentioned by the teachers. This does not justify censuring the teacher, because she based her opinion on all the data she had. It only indicates that high-school administrators must make other data available and give the teacher an opportunity to base her opinion on a larger fund of facts.

4. Wherever a scientific study of failures is made, it becomes evident that the emphasis must be placed on the individual pupil rather than on the school program, even if this is done at the cost of a smoothly running school machine. After all, the interest in the welfare of the child and the thorough study of the child should overshadow all factors in education. The true administrator will gladly dispense with many items essential to smoothly running machinery if something better for the happiness and the good of the pupil is assured. It seems reasonable, therefore, to conclude that the best remedy for the failure of high-school pupils lies in building the happiest possible relationship between teacher and pupil. The foundation for this structure is mutual understanding and sympathy between teacher and pupil. The teacher cannot gain this understanding until the principal and other school administrators provide an opportunity for the teacher to get all the information essential to a knowledge of the pupil, his point of view, and his problems.

## THE STATUS OF HIGH-SCHOOL ATHLETICS IN KANSAS

G. H. MARSHALL  
Superintendent of Schools, Augusta, Kansas

Some time ago a survey was made in eighty-six representative towns in Kansas to determine the situation in the state relative to high-school athletics in general and to football and basket ball in particular. Responses were received in time for tabulation from seventy-seven of the eighty-six towns addressed.

The superintendent in each of twelve of the larger towns was asked to give in a letter his personal view of the athletic situation, especially as it pertained to football and basket ball. Every one of the twelve superintendents sent an exhaustive and interesting reply, which revealed a deep interest in the subject.

It is extremely difficult to frame a questionnaire in such a way as entirely to prevent any except direct, straightforward answers. Many times the remarks given in connection with an answer profoundly modify the answer given. This was true to some extent in the questionnaire used in this case. However, such modifications were not sufficient or frequent enough to vitiate to any extent the summary presented in Table I.

TABLE I  
SUMMARY OF REPLIES TO QUESTIONNAIRE ON ATHLETICS

1. Does your high school play football? Basket ball? Track?	
Number of schools playing football.....	76
Number of schools playing basket ball.....	71
Number of schools having track.....	74
2. Do all the pupils in your high school get some form of physical training?	
Number of schools giving physical training to all pupils.....	16
Number of schools giving physical training to some of the pupils..	19
Number of schools not giving physical training to all pupils but probably to some.....	41

TABLE I—*Continued*

3. Do you give high-school credit for athletics or "gym" work?	
Number of schools giving credit.....	31
Number of schools not giving credit.....	32
4. Is interference with school work on days when there is a game mild, marked, or unnoticeable?	
Number of schools reporting marked interference.....	29
Number of schools reporting mild interference.....	40
Number of schools reporting unnoticeable interference.....	8
5. How many times this year have you dismissed your high school to attend games away from home? At home?	
Number of times schools were dismissed for games away from home.....	56
Number of times schools were dismissed for games at home.....	131
6. Do your pupils "cut" school to attend games away from home? If so, to what extent?	
Number of schools reporting "cutting".....	45
Number of schools reporting no "cutting".....	24
Number of schools reporting small amount of "cutting".....	41
Number of schools reporting considerable amount of "cutting".....	2
Number of schools reporting large amount of "cutting".....	2
7. Would Saturday games be an improvement so far as school disturbance is concerned?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	62
Number of schools answering "No".....	12
8. Would Saturday games be feasible in your community?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	21
Number of schools answering "No".....	48
9. If Saturday games are not feasible, why are they not?	
Number of schools reporting that boys have to work.....	28
Number of schools reporting that games would mean financial loss.....	10
Number of schools reporting objection on the part of business men.....	19
Number of schools reporting that players from country go home.....	7
Number of schools reporting that pupils lack interest in Saturday games.....	4
10. Do your pupils bet on games?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	26
Number of schools answering "No".....	39
Number of schools in doubt.....	5
Do business men bet on games?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	59
Number of schools answering "No".....	16
11. Do the townspeople stand for clean athletics, or do they demand a winning team at all costs?	

TABLE I—*Continued*

Number of schools reporting clean athletics.....	55
Number of schools reporting a winning team at all costs.....	22
12. What was the average cost of football officials the past season?	
Minimum per game.....	\$ 5.00
Median per game.....	\$14.00
Average per game.....	\$15.40
Maximum per game.....	\$36.00
13. Did football pay out this year?	
Number of schools reporting no deficit.....	64
Number of schools reporting a deficit.....	9
14. Do you pay the doctor bills of injured players?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	26
Number of schools answering "No".....	28
Number of schools answering "In part".....	14
15. Are the rules and regulations of the state athletic league lived up to by the schools of your acquaintance?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	55
Number of schools answering "No".....	5
Number of schools answering "Fairly well".....	14
16. How many games of football did you play?	
Minimum.....	5
Median.....	9
Maximum.....	12
17. How many games of basket ball have you scheduled?	
Minimum.....	4
Median.....	12
Maximum.....	18
18. Are the football players the only "heroes" in your school?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	16
Number of schools answering "No".....	59
19. Do you award letters for activities other than athletics?	
Number of schools answering "Yes".....	46
Number of schools answering "No".....	27

The replies to the questionnaire show rather conclusively that Kansas high schools are interested in three major lines of sport—football, basket ball, and track—and that these sports are almost equally emphasized. Physical training probably receives considerably more emphasis than the summary would indicate, as the question regarding this subject was unfortunately worded.

It is impossible in an article such as this to discuss each item in the summary at length, but some points should be explained, and

in the paragraphs which follow an attempt will be made to give such additional information as seems necessary to convey a correct notion of the results obtained.

The replies to Question 4 show without doubt that there is interference with regular school work because of the athletic program. One might gain the idea from the summary, however, that such interference really is "mild" and does not amount to much. Remarks in addition to the answer called for show quite a contrary situation. General remarks on the part of those replying, the number of dismissals for games, and the amount of "cutting" admitted all show that there is considerable disturbance of the schedule on account of athletics. Many superintendents meet this situation by shortening the class periods, by beginning the school day earlier, by omitting chapel or the home-room period, or even, in some cases, by granting a half-holiday for a home game or for a game in a neighboring town. Such things may be better than "cutting" on the part of individual pupils, but certainly they will have to be classed as interferences.

In the same connection, it is interesting to note that, in replying to Question 7, an overwhelming majority admitted that Saturday games would be preferable so far as school work is concerned. Only a few, however, were willing to admit that such games would be feasible. Undoubtedly, there is much truth in the statement that many of the boys have to work on Saturday, but the objection of the business men is probably overrated. In many towns, business men are conspicuous for their absence from games rather than for their attendance, and the real "fans" would find a way to be present. One thing is certain; agitation for Saturday games is becoming more and more insistent, and a number of schools are trying them out.

It was somewhat surprising that more than one-third of the schools replying to Question 10 admitted betting on the part of the pupils. The reason for this situation is evident when one learns from the answers to the second part of the question that in three-fourths of the towns concerned the business men bet on the games. So long as this condition exists, it will be impossible to prevent betting among the pupils.

Betting is probably the greatest handicap the high schools have to overcome in their fight for clean athletics. Those who indulge in

betting are the ones who clamor for a winning team at all costs. Town pride makes the ordinary man want to bet on his home team, but it must not be a losing team. Those who bet are the ones who cannot forgive a coach for losing a game and "cuss him out" if, in the interest of clean athletics, he puts a good player off the team for "dirty" playing. From statements made on the questionnaire, it is evident that more than one superintendent has found it expedient to resign because he would not tolerate certain practices in order to secure a winning team. One superintendent related the story of a business man who actually sought the dismissal of the coach because he did not make known the fact that his team, which had been losing, was going to win a certain game. The business man's lament was that, had he known, he could have won a thousand dollars.

One of the most irritating situations existing in Kansas inter-school sports, according to the replies received, is the matter of fees paid to game officials. A large number of superintendents are dissatisfied with the present method of "bidding" for certain men, especially for the big games. On the other hand, home officials sooner or later cause trouble, and the practice of employing them has to be abandoned. A maximum fee set by the state athletic league has been suggested, but this is not likely to prove satisfactory owing to the fact that subterfuges could easily be resorted to on the part of the schools not wishing to abide by the rule.

Another matter causing real concern to school administrators in Kansas is the payment by the school of the doctor bills of injured players. The practice of paying such bills seems to have arisen from the desire of the school authorities to provide for worthy cases, but already many pupils are demanding it as a right. According to one report, pupils boldly asserted their right to medical treatment even for the most trivial injuries, because, as they said, they "earned the money." Probably no one is willing to say that no such bills should be paid, but the danger of establishing a precedent is real. A liability willingly acknowledged over a period of time tends to become one to which the courts will give recognition. At least one school within the state has had such a problem on its hands.

The answers to Question 18 would indicate that the football players do not enjoy all the "glory" in high-school circles, but the

fact remains that they are still frequently the only part of the student body to get outside recognition. Perhaps the word "only" should not have been used in this question, as it seems to exclude the basket-ball players, who frequently share the "halo" with the football team.

Without exception, the replies of the twelve superintendents addressed were frank and to the point. None failed to stress the fact that he favored sane athletics in the high school, and practically the same unanimity prevailed with regard to the advisability of curbing the two major sports—football and basket ball. The superintendent of schools in one of the larger second-class towns wrote as follows:

There is no doubt that the matter of athletics is coming to an acute stage. I think my attitude regarding football is held by a great many school administrators—that it is a valuable part of school life but that it is becoming too expensive a thing, especially in time and general effect on the school system. It has been my observation that the football game held on Friday virtually amounts to a full holiday on that day, because not only are the football players excused but the remainder of the pupils have extreme difficulty in keeping their minds on their tasks. We have noted further that, when the school plays a game in an adjacent town within easy driving distance, practically the entire school wishes to leave to attend the game. During the football season it seems that school runs four days a week and football one day.

The development of football in both high schools and colleges is reaching the point where the football team is assuming the position of major importance in the school and overshadowing all else. For some time I have had the feeling that school administrators ought to take very careful note of the matter of extra-curriculum activities. Frankly, I think that it is getting to the point where the "tail is wagging the dog." If we do not take steps to correct it, our patrons are going to do it for us.

This superintendent seemed to echo the sentiment of a considerable number of his fellow-administrators, although some expressed themselves in somewhat different terms. The following is an excerpt from a letter written by the superintendent of schools in a town with a population of about twelve thousand.

There is too much of everything. This applies to athletics and to everything else in the community. Public opinion demands a winning team. The "Spit and Argue" club "cusses" the coach if he doesn't produce it. He feels under pressure to get the best the school can offer in material and to use it to win games. The whole tendency of high-school athletics is to ape college athletics, and the trend is decidedly toward professionalism. We have some

bipeds in our community of doubtful mentality who insist that we should have a coach of the ability of Gwin Henry to handle our athletics.

The coach problem is a hard one. He wants to put out a winning team, and, to keep in with the boys, he will put up with almost anything at times. Teachers cater to the same influence. Training rules are almost invariably broken. Eligibility rules are warped completely out of shape to fit different cases. The only remedy I see for this is a stiffer spinal column on the part of teachers, coach, and all of us.

Undoubtedly, there must be considerable weakness of will on the part of the school authorities, as this last idea appears again and again in the letters received. One superintendent says:

In my judgment, if there is anything wrong with the operation of athletics in high school, particularly with reference to football and basket ball, it is the fault not of athletics but of the principals, coaches, and teachers who have not the backbone to live up to what they know is the right thing.

Another superintendent expressed the same idea even more forcefully when he said, "Athletics overdone, unmanaged, and unsupervised in a school calls for kicking out the coach and some of the school administrators rather than the athletes." Since that sentence was written, however, football has been outlawed by that very superintendent's board of education.

It is well to note that educators are not alone in their condemnation of some phases of high-school athletics. The last legislature of the state of Kansas considered a bill that would have prohibited the giving of state funds to any school engaging in interschool athletic contests. William Allen White, that indomitable journalist and editor of the *Emporia Gazette*, came out with a scathing editorial on present-day athletic sports. He deplores the amount of money, time, and energy spent on football and basket ball and then says:

At least one-half and very likely two-thirds of the attention of every child of school age in this city [Emporia] and county is centered not on education, not on the teachers, not on the text, nor on any serious thing that will help these children to understand life. . . . Now, if the students were all getting good, wholesome exercise out of these games, it would help a little. But no—precious little exercise does the average school child get out of school sports. He exercises his lungs. He whacks his poor brains with useless vanities. He works up a feverish interest in the interschool sport which shuts out books and things of the mind.

Let the boys and girls play all the games they want to in their own schools. But the interschool contests arouse the contentious, combative, partisan in-

stincts so deeply that other instincts and interests take second place. We are now spending millions in America to make a lot of blind, rough-necked, yowling rooters for cheap causes. We should be spending our money to teach our children to know life, to understand human nature, to acquire something of the wisdom of the ages, and to live happier than they otherwise would. But inter-school sport is the bane of American education.

Mr. White's statements may be overstrong—journalists are given to exaggeration—but we shall have to admit that there is too much foundation in fact for the assertions he makes. Athletics, like the fabled camel, is about to usurp the whole tent. Hope for a sane remedy must be had in the school administrators themselves. If the matter is left until the public takes it in hand, there will be a major operation. This survey would indicate that the school men of Kansas realize this fact, and there seems to be a real demand on their part for an athletic program which will entail less school disturbance, a smaller financial outlay, a truer sport spirit, and a better sense of proportion not only between athletics and other school activities but between athletics in the general sense and the major sports.

## MOTIVATION IN THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL THROUGH INTERCLASS EFFICIENCY CONTESTS

L. E. CASH

Chester High School, Chester, Connecticut

The Chester High School, Chester, Connecticut, is a small-town high school with the usual small-school problems. The population of Chester is about 1,600. The school enrolment is 75. The student body is drawn from the children of factory employees, 40 per cent of whom are foreign born.

During the last eight years, I have been actively interested in the boy-scout movement, having been scout leader of troops in the schools with which I have been connected. In the scout movement a great deal is accomplished by means of interpatrol and intertroop efficiency contests. These arouse interest and produce very desirable motivation for troop advancement. I became convinced that a similar scheme might prove equally beneficial in the Chester High School.

With this idea in mind, I brought up the matter for discussion at the teachers' meeting preceding the opening of the school year. The teachers supported the idea with enthusiasm, and we developed a plan on which to start the contest. The pupils were informed at a general assembly that the faculty wished to help them make a game of school whereby all could benefit, the school standards could be improved, and they could, at the same time, enjoy their school work. The faculty offered to the class winning the contest at the end of the year a cup similar to the very much prized baseball, basket-ball, and track cups offered in the high-school athletic leagues of which we were members. The numerals of the winning class were to be engraved on the cup at the close of the contest.

In developing the system of points by which the cup was to be won, we attempted to equalize and evaluate the widely divergent activities of the school, stressing at the same time various features which we hoped could be improved.

1. *To improve attendance.*—Each pupil who attended school one week without being absent or tardy scored 1. A month's perfect attendance added 5; a half-year, 10; a full year, 25.

2. *To recognize scholarship.*—Each mark on card, for six-week ranking period, over 80 (passing mark, 70) scored 1. Each name on honor roll (all marks over 85) added 5; honor roll for half-year, 10; full year, 25.

3. *To improve deportment.*—Every six weeks the faculty prepared a list consisting of the names of the twenty pupils whom the faculty considered to have had the best class and study-room behavior. Any pupil named on this list scored 5. A particular point in deportment was especially stressed by a similar list of twenty pupils who showed the highest courtesy. Consideration was given to attitude toward teachers and fellow-pupils. Pupils whose names were on this list likewise scored 5.

4. *To recognize extra-curriculum activities.*—The earning of the school athletic letter scored 10; a place on any school second team, 5; membership on debating team, dramatic club, school orchestra, or glee club, 5; the winning of any interclass debate, athletic contest, etc., 10.

5. *To improve school assemblies.*—A series of interclass assembly contests were held at regular intervals; the winner scored 10; second, 5.

6. *To improve school finances.*—Each pupil paying athletic dues before the specified dates scored 5.

The idea pleased the pupils and was taken up by them with enthusiasm. Attendance, deportment, and courtesy showed marked improvement. The greatest success was in the improvement of the Friday afternoon assembly period. This had become more or less of a bore to teachers and pupils alike, it being difficult to find pupils willing to put in the time necessary to prepare programs. As the faculty of the high school consisted of four members, we hit on the happy idea of each one taking a class in an advisory capacity for the preparation of programs.

The first assembly was a group sing. Each class sang the school song and one other song. The amount of work done by each class in preparation for this contest surprised us, and the spirit with which

it was carried out was gratifying. The contest was followed by others bi-weekly; instrumental soloists were chosen for one contest, then vocal soloists, and next readers. Before each contest class meetings were held, and the class representatives were selected. The four teachers coaching the classes acted as judges and selected the winner. Then came the surprise of the year. The senior class asked whether a contest could be held in quartet singing. Naturally, the teachers were delighted to grant them permission to challenge the school. Four quartets took part. The senior surprise quartet proved to be a male quartet, which not only won the contest but immediately became the local sensation of the year for the townsfolk. Not to be outdone by the Seniors, the junior class challenged for one-act plays. These were given on four successive Fridays. Spelling matches, as suggested by the Freshmen, concluded the schedule.

While interest in assemblies was the greatest feature developed by the contest, the other factors also showed good motivation. The total scores earned during the year were: Freshmen, 1,584; Seniors, 1,367; Juniors, 1,301; and Sophomores, 1,120. The cup was purchased by the teachers and presented by the principal to the president of the freshman class at the graduation exercises in June.

The results of the efficiency contest were as follows:

1. There was a marked improvement in attendance. Tardiness decreased 60 per cent.
2. The number of pupils whose marks were 70 or 75 decreased 20 per cent.
3. Deportment and courtesy improved markedly. In one six-week period forty pupils did not have their names taken by any teacher for minor infractions.
4. For the first time in the history of the school the athletic association finished the season with all bills paid and a small surplus. More than 80 per cent of the pupils paid on or before the specified dates as compared with the usual 50 per cent.
5. Not only were the Friday assemblies improved in quality and in interest, but the parents flocked into school to hear the programs, and much of the discovered talent was borrowed for Grange, Eastern Star, and church programs.

6. A spirit of co-operation and friendliness grew up between the pupils and the teachers which exceeded that of any previous year.

7. Last of all, for the first time in his four years in the high school, Sam paid his athletic dues and took part in a class activity when he stood up and spelled for his class in one of the contests, a victory for the school really overshadowing all others.

This year there are but few changes in the original plans, and there seems to be even more interest among the pupils than during the first year.

The Chester High School is, of course, a small school, and the plan may not be equally successful elsewhere, but it is offered for consideration. All pupils of high-school age like contests, cups, etc. Class spirit can easily lead them into working for worth-while motives. The contest plan is simple and can be readily adjusted to varying conditions. Changed evaluations can stress desired points, and the plan can be expanded at will. The scheme works in the Boy Scouts of America; it works in the Chester High School. It makes a game of school for pupil and teacher.

## EXPERIMENTS IN DEMOCRACY

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JOSEPH G. MASTERS

Central High School, Omaha, Nebraska

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Examples of administrative procedure in handling large school problems are herewith presented not so much for the purpose of exhibiting refinements in technique as for the purpose of making clear the attitude of the faculty of the Omaha Central High School toward the whole program of the school. Neither the attitude nor the technique is thought of as fully expressing perfection in democratic administration, but evidence is here presented of the democratic spirit and ideal as conscious working principles.

### FACULTY ACTION

The faculty of the Omaha Central High School is a democratic body which meets from time to time to discuss and outline policies, lay plans, decide questions, and ratify, reject, or modify committee reports. Matters great and small receive the careful attention of its members.

Such administrative problems as the following claim attention: assessing members of the faculty to provide for the purchase of school journals and flowers; providing methods of selling tickets; rallying faculty support for extra-curriculum activities; deciding on the number of dramatic and musical performances to be permitted; modifying and approving a point system for the control of extra-curriculum activities; regulating hall privileges; voting a big "open-house" meeting for parents and pupils; devising plans for the raising of funds for a radio broadcasting station and for state-wide scholarship and music contests; budgeting funds obtained by a tax on performances; adding to, and modifying plans for, "self-enrolment"; changing the character of the pupil publications; devising better methods of closing the semester's work; discussing methods and formulating additional safeguards in electing pupils to the Junior Honor Society and to the National Honor Society; formulating

plans for the state-wide scholarship contest; adopting resolutions regarding clubs, fraternities, and sororities; finding serviceable places for additional telephones in the building; discussing pupil behavior at assemblies; defining amount of work to be carried by varying groups of pupils; investigating causes of, and suggesting remedies for, failures; receiving petitions from various pupil organizations (petitions presented and argued by the pupils themselves); and formulating plans for the sifting and filing of candidacies for office.

In the consideration of all matters mentioned in the foregoing list there is opportunity for the greatest possible amount of discussion. A faculty member may make any motion that he cares to submit for consideration. For the most part, the solutions reached may be defined as liberal, thoughtful, and timely.

That part of the work of the faculty which is largely administrative is carried on by committees. These groups have the greatest amount of freedom and independence in doing their work. The following names of faculty committees indicate the type of work undertaken: activities, alumni at college, athletic, auditorium reservations, board of control and finance, box office, college scholarships, commercial contests, costume, courtesies, debate, declamatory contests, health plans, home room, Junior Honor Society, mass meeting, "movies," National Education Association, National Honor Society, open house, outside music, patriotic, pictures and statuary, prizes, projects, properties, publication board, publicity, road show, social, state interscholastic contest, state music contest, State Teachers' Association, and student control.

Practically all faculty members serve as class sponsors or as sponsors for one or more extra-curriculum activities.

Some notable achievements of the faculty acting as a unit, through committees, or as individuals may be recorded. Best of all is that fine morale and deep loyalty developed by the many responsibilities and the freedom of action. Mistakes are made occasionally, but these generally serve as warning signals for possible pitfalls in the future. In the sense that "democracy" means a contribution to the public good by each individual, the high-school faculty is truly a democratic body.

## SELF-ENROLMENT

The self-enrolment plan represents a plan of enrolment for the high school which was devised about seven years ago and which has been added to and improved almost every semester since that time. Since each pupil plans and works out his own program and carries this through to completion, the enrolment of two thousand pupils is accomplished in a single forenoon. Incoming Freshmen are enrolled by the office.

All preparations for the new semester, up to the actual time of enrolment, are carried forward in the usual manner. Three or four days before enrolment, the schedule is posted in convenient places in the halls. In order that this schedule may be in convenient form, it is made up as follows:

## PROGRAM OF CLASSES, SECOND SEMESTER, 1925-26

English IX:	English III:	Algebra III:
III-232—Taylor	I-122—Davies	II-148—Nelsen
English VIII:	I-211—Stebbins	III-111—Fawthrop
I-312—Briden- baugh	II-341—J. von Mansfelde	IV-248—B. von Mansfelde
I-139—Neale	III-341—J. von Mansfelde	V-136—Ryan
	III-211—Stebbins	VI-211—Judkins
	IV-212—Fry	

From the five pages of such sheets comprising the full program, the pupil arranges in advance one, two, three, or four possible programs. This he does that he may make the greatest possible speed on enrolment day. As evidence that he is eligible to enrol in certain sections, the pupil carries either his report cards or an approved application card. On the morning of enrolment day the pupils assemble in their home rooms for final instructions. At a given signal, all are set free, and each hurries to the teacher of the class which he is most anxious to enter. Here he fills out an "attendance card," secures a blank program card, and, with the permission of the teacher, writes his name on her class roll for the hour desired. He then gets the teacher's official stamp in the proper space on his program card and hurries to the next teacher. By the time he reaches the

second room, a line has been formed. If this line seems too long and the teacher's classes in the desired work are likely to be filled before he can reach her desk, he goes to a third teacher where the prospects are brighter. In the same manner he goes from one teacher to another until he has arranged for all his subjects. If his program becomes blocked by the closing of certain desired classes, he must go back to the teachers with whom he has registered and be released from their classes. He then secures a new program card and starts again. When all his subjects are arranged for, he goes to the study-hall teachers that he may get his choices there.

To insure approximately equal enrolment in the various sections, the "tabulating bureau" closes all classes when twenty-two pupils have enrolled. As soon as all classes are filled to this number, all are opened to twenty-five. Later they may be opened to twenty-eight or thirty, depending on the need.

After seven years of active use, the plan has come to be hedged about with a great many safeguards. Space will not permit the outlining of these here. Suffice it to say that the enrolment now moves with the utmost acceleration. Work that formerly took the principals and a committee weeks to accomplish is now accomplished by the pupils themselves in three or four hours. Much time and a vast amount of energy are thus saved for other constructive work. In addition, the pupil recognizes that all have an equal chance, that he must be alert if he is to get the program he desires. He is generally satisfied with the results at the end of enrolment day.

With such a procedure, there is considerable evaluation of the teachers by the pupils going on all the time. Their attitude and their ability to make pupils happy and contented in their work come to the fore. The pupils do not generally seek "easy" teachers. Larger considerations, such as strong leadership and power to make the work move forward in a pleasant way, seem to weigh more with the large majority of pupils.

#### EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Effective teaching will bring out the best in all boys and girls. There ought to be the utmost freedom for discussion in every classroom. High standards of achievement for all those able to do good

work are, or ought to be, the heritage of every American youth. These excellent standards are not enough, however. They offer only half a chance for real development. In addition, pupils must have the widest possible opportunity to participate in the administrative affairs of the school and to carry forward a large number of pupil organizations by assuming the major leadership and responsibilities in these organizations. In the better American high schools as much real development is resulting from the extra-curriculum activities as is resulting from the more formal classroom instruction itself.

The few plans here outlined represent an attempt to give pupils this wider responsibility in just one field, namely, that of direct participation. Space will permit the names of a few organizations only and a brief statement of the work accomplished by each.

#### STUDENT CONTROL

The group of pupils organized under "Student Control" (1) supervise the halls before school and during the luncheon period and the grounds and the building after school, (2) supervise the cafeteria and the lines during the luncheon period, (3) supervise the larger mass meetings, and (4) suggest better methods of handling the foregoing and related problems. These pupils keep the lines in good order and compel each pupil to take his turn; check running; anticipate smoking; break up locker parties; stop scuffling, wearing of hats, and running; prevent whispering, talking, and other forms of disorder in meetings; etc. The sponsor allows the members a great deal of latitude in dealing with offenders. A member uses his own discretion in reporting trouble to the sponsor or to the principal. The school recognizes the members of the organization by noting what they accomplish, by giving each member an "S.C." button, by putting their names and pictures in the weekly paper and annual, by counting membership as activity points, etc. It is reasonably certain that good attitudes and such worth-while qualities as initiative, self-control, and responsibility are developed in the members of this body. The fact that the whole school is represented and has a voice in affairs through the Student Control makes the pupils better satisfied and far more willing to accept direction at the hands of this group.

## MONITORS' COUNCIL

A thousand pupils make use of the library each day. The Monitors' Council, composed of pupils selected on the basis of individual initiative and faculty recommendation and sponsored by the head librarian, has come to be a most effective organization in controlling the registration, organization, and behavior of the groups which enter the library. The council looks after books and materials as well.

To facilitate the work, the council meets from time to time to lay plans, to study problems, and to consider cases of misbehavior. Such problems as handling attendance routine; checking whispering, note-writing, and the taking of too many books; and warning and excluding offending pupils come up for consideration and decision.

Each table in the library is presided over by a monitor, whose responsibility is indicated by the following bit of counsel handed the monitor as work is undertaken.

The Monitors' Council believes that it will be a decided help in cultivating the proper library spirit if you will make a regular practice of telling each pupil about whom you report an "error." It is possible that the pupil may not know the rule, or he may feel that he has escaped notice or has bluffed successfully. If he is told regularly, he has no excuse. Also, it gives a fair chance for explanations and a real understanding.

**The following notice is handed to each pupil who uses the library.**

Complaint is made almost every day that pupils take to their seats more than a fair supply of reference books, leaving later comers without any books. This is certainly a test of our spirit of fair play and co-operation. Usually you read only one book at a time; taking two or three books at a time is pure selfishness *when* it deprives others of any material. There are recognized occasions when two books may be needed for comparisons; in that case notify your monitor of your situation.

**The following notice may be handed to a pupil.**

You are hereby warned that you have three "errors" against your record in the library. The next "error" recorded against you will bar you from the privilege of registration. The library is a place which we need, all of us, for work. Won't you do your part? Won't you play fair with your fellow-pupils?

If an offense is repeated, the name of the pupil is brought before the whole council, and a notice like the following may result.

To the Principal:

In our judgment \_\_\_\_\_ has not proved himself a loyal pupil in the library. Please transfer him to a study room during the \_\_\_\_\_ hour.

MONITORS' COUNCIL

O.K. \_\_\_\_\_  
Librarian

From time to time the monitors are asked for reports on their tables, reports on the number of pupils warned or dropped, and written suggestions with regard to better methods of handling problems.

To be a monitor, a pupil must be recommended by three members of the faculty who believe that he will and can take on the necessary responsibility to handle the work well. Monitors who do not succeed are relieved of the responsibility and, of course, of the honor.

Those who have been watching the work of the monitors for the past three years believe that the responsibility builds into the pupils stability, decision, thoughtfulness, courage, fairness, and self-reliance. The fact that almost the entire load is carried by the pupils themselves and that a decision in a given case is made by the pupils helps greatly to bring about the realization of the democratic ideal in the plan.

After the council had been in operation for some time, the head librarian made the following statement about its value.

I think that the order in the library has improved by leaps and bounds; there is more quiet, more thoughtfulness. The monitors at the tables are interested; they feel that they have authority and responsibility. Last semester they were too harsh and severe; the council talked to the group of monitors, urging a comfortable, friendly, human atmosphere—no relentless attitude of superiority and police duty but one of reasonable, kindly co-operation. As I see it, they are securing that result wonderfully well.

#### CENTRAL COMMITTEE

The Central Committee is an all-school organization, the members of which are selected from the home rooms of the school. The basis of membership is largely individual worth. Selection is made on recommendation of faculty members, with no particular ratio for each room. The purpose of the organization is to render such service as the various subcommittees may find opportunities for in and about the school. The following accomplishments may be noted:

cleared the campus of dandelions in the spring of 1925, provided filing stations (ink) at a number of points in the school, helped the school nurse to do her filing, secured mirrors and soap for a number of lavatories in the building, helped to care for the lawn and put up signs, cleaned the statuary in the halls, and decorated the stage for patriotic mass meetings.

In the sense that each member should do something for the general welfare, this committee has fully justified its existence and has proved itself capable of unselfish service.

#### PURPLE LEGION

The Purple Legion derives a part of its name from the school colors. It has taken over the problem of managing athletic games by helping with ticket sales, by guarding gates and fences, by seating people in the grand stands, by helping elementary schools with the conduct of players, and by keeping pupils and other spectators off the field. The members help to determine sentiment and good sportsmanship throughout the school by arousing interest in games, by setting a high standard of fair play, by checking cheering when it occurs at the wrong time, and by displaying a generous spirit toward visiting players and teams.

A number of the members have also undertaken to help the "needy boy" by counseling with him, encouraging him to do better work, and showing him better methods of study. In the autumn of 1926 members of the legion acted as advisers to incoming freshman boys.

#### CENTRAL COLLEENS

The members of the all-school girls' club, Central Colleens, chose their name in a spirit of levity, but they have serious purposes. It is a new organization and is open to any girl who wishes to join during the first month of a semester. Its purpose is largely that of fellowship and service, although it proposes to accept any worthwhile piece of work that may need to be done in the school. The members served as "big sisters" to the freshman girls in January, 1926, and they have tried to see that no girl new to the school is without friends among their own number. The ritual of the club, yet to be agreed upon, will aim to express the ideal side of girl life in the

high school. This organization arranged the program at the initiation of new members of the National Honor Society in the spring of 1926 and helped to provide the program which launched the new national honor society in journalism, "The Quill and Scroll," in the school. As a working standard, the club accepts the challenge of helpfulness toward every girl in the school.

#### SOLUTION OF GENERAL PROBLEMS

In a number of cases serious problems affecting the whole school have been presented to the home rooms for consideration. After discussing a matter for some time, nearly every room reaches a good solution of the problem. Serious cases of discipline have been turned over to interested groups for settlement. At times deliberation over these cases has been long and serious, but the outcomes have nearly always been just, generous, and fair.

Far more valuable than the solution and adjustment is the good attitude that develops as the discussion proceeds. By an almost unconscious process the pupil aligns himself with the finer ideals of the school and soon grows to be a staunch supporter of its traditions and purposes. By having so many things to do, he soon develops that finer quality of *esprit de corps*, morale, and working loyalty, which not only makes him an effective member of the school but helps to build stronger and better traditions in the institution itself. Inner unity is thus achieved by the larger opportunities and responsibilities constantly placed before the pupil. This larger responsibility makes for inner direction, inner control, and inner self-sufficiency. As Dewey puts it, "Growth is not something done to them [pupils]; it is something they do."

## LOW I.Q.'S IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

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ANNA E. BIDDLE

South Philadelphia High School for Girls, Philadelphia

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With the school-attendance law rigidly enforced, there are large numbers of children under sixteen years of age attending high school who do not "get along." They cannot be dropped from the school roll unless they have a job, and they cannot get a job for the same reason that they cannot succeed in school. They are not interested in a trade. The counselor tries her best to persuade them that the industrial world is not as it was when their parents knew it and that there are splendid opportunities there with one or two years of training. They are determined upon office work or nothing. Consequently, they remain term after term, failing and repeating, working as hard as they can but getting nowhere. They grow utterly discouraged, because even in a slow-progress class they fall far behind. They always lose in competition with their classmates and begin to believe that there is no place for them anywhere. They become confirmed in the "habit of failure." Some of them defensively put the blame on the school or the teacher and, later, on society in general. After their sixteenth birthday, they may be dismissed from school if they fail to pass a definite amount of work. This is not always a wise procedure, especially with the possibility of active delinquency imminent. Has the high school any responsibility toward such pupils? Do interest and dogged persistence count for anything when competency is just below the high-school standard?

The beginning of a scientific study of the girl in high school without high-school competency was made in 1923 in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls. We were asking, and were being asked, "What do you do with your low I.Q.'s?" No one had a satisfactory answer to give. Such girls certainly have no place in any four-year high-school course. To offer them a substitute is an expensive undertaking, but, on the other hand, the state always spends more money on its incompetents than on any others, and a

small sum spent for prevention can be looked upon as an investment. These girls may become social problems; just now, however, they are teaching problems.

In the autumn of 1923 we had a particularly large group of fifteen-year-old girls who had failed one, two, or three terms, and we faced the task of keeping them two terms longer in exactly the same work. Their I.Q.'s on the Binet test ranged from 66 to 84, with a reverse memory span under 5. They refused the suggestion that they obtain work as messengers in a department store, declaring that they were going to stay in school and then "work in an office." When the improbability of completing two years of high-school work and thus being qualified to undertake stenography was suggested to them, they doggedly insisted that they were going to try. It was that persistence and our knowledge of its hopelessness that made us face the problem squarely. Our employment director said that there are jobs open requiring routine typewriting which the more highly trained persons scorn. It was decided, therefore, to prepare our office aspirants for such work as that. The term had already started, but four teachers were found who could and would take an extra class. The matter of the necessary classrooms in an overcrowded school presented a bigger problem, but that, too, was solved, and the extension class was launched. Thirteen girls were asked to enter after it was carefully explained to them that they were to be kept in one class and were to work at their own speed; that, instead of science and a foreign language, they were to be given typewriting and practical office work; and that they were to leave school at the end of a year. The typewriting proved a great attraction, as we hoped it would, and the prospect of a real job in the near future, with the school's recommendation depending on their work in all subjects, made them attack the English and civics with a different attitude. The teachers assumed a different attitude, also, for they were under no obligation to cover any definite amount of work or to prepare the girls for the next grade.

It has frequently been asked, "Don't the girls in this course feel 'branded'? Is there not danger of an unfortunate stigma being put upon them?" We have watched closely for any such evidence but have discovered none. Before the end of the first term, we were

besieged with applicants, to whom we talked very courteously and tactfully. It is the attitude of these girls themselves that makes the course appear desirable. They call themselves "specials" and often have to be curbed in their exuberant desire for special privileges. They bustle importantly around the typewriting rooms. They talk learnedly about their hygiene and office practice to the other girls in their record sections, who know that such heights ordinarily are not achieved until one's senior year. In other words, they "spread themselves"; perhaps the little taste of success they are getting goes to their heads. They are happy, contented, and extremely busy. Since they are no longer competing with their superiors and can set their own pace, they can see results of their hard work in the form of F's and G's on their organization cards. The habit of failure has given way to the habit of success, and their self-respect is restored. They report that this course is much more "interesting" than the regular one, and, because they always have something to say, they are no longer afraid to talk in class. They claim also that all their "subjects hang together and you can see the sense of them, which there ain't in science and history."

At the end of the term those who were interested met to decide whether the experiment was worth continuing. The teachers said that at first they treated the class as any slow-progress class, expecting it to be still slower, but that the class as a whole failed to respond. The English teacher, for instance, thinking a desirable achievement on her part would be to introduce the girls to good current literature, found that their indifference and apathy were amazing. Not one of them liked to read and "didn't see any sense in it." They were much more interested in themselves and their own problems and responded only when the work was put on that basis. They liked to talk and were quick in correcting one another's mistakes. They learned to conduct a meeting without self-consciousness and gave reports on various topics. They wrote letters applying for positions and also letters for social occasions. Sentence structure and punctuation were studied because, of course, the ideal business girl must know all that. All the teachers reported the same kind of experience; all the work must relate to the particular place in society which these girls were going to occupy, and that place

was not among "the intellectuals." We agreed that these girls seemed more mature socially and physiologically than their I.Q.'s would indicate. They are keenly interested in boys and parties, and they ought to have freedom to express that interest under real guidance. We were surprised to find the extent to which each individual blossomed out when they were alone, away from the inhibiting effects of girls with superior ability. They acquired an amazing amount of self-confidence and poise in a short time. Their good manners and social charm had a chance to be displayed and improved. They showed a spirit of co-operation in working together that can certainly be developed into a good business asset. To be sure, they lacked initiative, but they could keep on going after they were started, provided no mental endurance was required. They possessed little concentration of attention and no power of organizing information, but they could be trained to acquire real proficiency on the typewriter. They were emotional almost to the point of instability, but the effect of responsibility and the increase in their self-respect were marked in just one term. After such an analysis we decided that, instead of a vague "modification" of the high-school curriculum and of methods of teaching which depended on the very qualities these girls lacked, we needed an entirely new curriculum and different methods, growing out of our knowledge of the abilities they possess or can be trained to acquire.

Such a curriculum was not made in a moment; it has been experimented with for six terms and is still being changed. With the adoption of the Dalton Plan, our technique is improving, and the assignments in all the subjects represent greater coherency. Their goal is the development of personality. The subjects now included are typewriting and English, each five periods; office practice and civics, each four periods; personal hygiene, physical training, and alternate terms of sewing and cooking, each two periods. These, with a music period, an assembly period, and a club period, make twenty-seven hours of supervised work. At first, we tried putting the beginning and advanced classes together, alternating the terms of work, but their stages of development are too dissimilar and do not mix well at all. Also, the numbers became so large that the girls are now in two separate classes, twenty-three in the advanced class and

twenty-seven in the beginning class. They always remain in the record sections to which they properly belong, but they are promoted to the next grade at the end of their first term in the extension course, although no credits are given. (We always think of promotion in terms of credits.) This is done not only as a reward of merit but also because each grade has a different plan for home-room activities and assemblies, and repetition would be undesirable. In all other ways the girls follow the general rules of the school. They are on free time only at the discretion of the teacher. At the end of the year they are given a certificate stating that they have finished "a one-year commercial course." Those who need help in finding a job file applications with our employment counselor. She reports that it is no more difficult to find work for them than for our graduates. We have "graduated" ninety of these extension girls in the past six terms. Follow-up work is difficult because they are no more prompt in answering questionnaires than is the average person. We found one girl in the same office with one of our graduates, getting a higher salary. This was a case where small training and personality counted for more than the best training and no personality.

How are girls selected for the extension course? The psychologist has the results of the Philadelphia Group Test of Mental Ability and the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability for every entering girl. With these results before her, she interviews every girl, ascertaining her auditory, visual, and reverse memory span and getting from her some idea of her social and economic status and her own desires for the future. Where there is a decided lack of correlation in all this evidence, the Binet test is given. Toward the end of the first term the girls in the commercial course who have low I.Q.'s and are failing very badly are interviewed again. Those who are fifteen years old are told about the extension course and advised to enter it after they have discussed it at home and have obtained their parents' consent. For the girls who are very young we have other suggestions, such as dropping a subject and going more slowly or taking "special mathematics" instead of the regular course, giving them encouragement and the opportunity, which a large high-school organization offers, to develop socially and physically before beginning the specialized training of the extension course. No girl is required to take it. On the contrary, it is offered as an oppor-

tunity, and the only hint needed to restore a recalcitrant "special" to good behavior is that perhaps she had better go back into the "regular" course. We have many applicants but have found it absolutely necessary to enforce rigidly all three "entrance requirements," namely, fifteen years of age, low intelligence quotient, and low achievement quotient. It is quite possible to have the third without the second, and such a girl needs very different treatment. Some bright girls apply, seeing in it a short cut. To them the nature of the course is fully explained, and they are told why they do not belong in it. When entering girls apply, they are asked to come back to the psychologist at the end of the term with their report cards and in the meantime to do their very best work. In no case is the word "failure" associated with the course, for it would be most undesirable even to appear to put a premium on unsatisfactory marks.

The following are sample assignments in industrial civics.

#### CHAPTER I

##### MYRA'S FIRST POSITION; MYRA'S INTRODUCTION TO THE LAW

Myra McCabe and Marion Hedman had been chums for years. One was never seen without the other although Myra was two years older than Marion. When Myra was thirteen, however, she decided to leave school and support herself, for she was very large and strong for her age and looked much taller and older than the other girls in her class. It was a long time before Myra finally reached this decision, for it would mean that she and Marion could see each other only evenings and Sundays.

On Monday morning Myra went with her cousin, Elsie, to a clothing factory where Elsie worked. The latter pushed her into the little room where a line of applicants was waiting to see the employment manager. "Mind, say that you are sixteen," Elsie whispered as she left her.

Myra's eyes grew big and round. "Now why did she say that?" she wondered. She watched the people ahead of her.

There was a tiny boy, no bigger than her brother Jack, who was not yet twelve. When the employment manager asked him his age, he piped up, "Sixteen." The employment manager looked at him, frowning.

"You will have to bring me proof of it," he said. Then he turned to Myra and asked, "Are you sixteen?" She nodded, a little frightened, for she did not like to lie. "Well, you look it," he said. "I haven't anything for you but to sew on tags. Do you want it?"

"Yes," said Myra. She would have said "Yes" to any kind of position, for they were all strange to her.

She was sent up in the elevator to the third floor. When she opened the door, she was startled by the noise of the machinery. Row after row of girls sat facing the big machine, pushing cloth under the galloping needles. She stood still, confused. A woman came up to her and took her employment card. She said something which Myra could not hear on account of the noise, but as the woman moved away, Myra followed her. She found herself by a pile of clothing, and the woman showed her how to sew on the trade name. Then she was left to her task.

At first she was clumsy, and the tags went in askew; but, as one followed another in endless succession, she found her work growing neater. She began to look at her labels with pride. The forelady came along as she was examining her work. "Are you an inspectress?" she asked.

"No, ma'am," said Myra, "I sew on tags."

"You'd better get on with your work then," said the woman sharply, "and let someone else admire it. If that's all the work you've done this morning, you're not much use to us." She moved away, and Myra turned nervously to her sewing. One tag after another, over and over. She felt that she had been sewing tags forever.

At last twelve o'clock came. The machines abruptly ceased their noise, and there was a rush for the door. Myra stood still with uncertainty, not knowing what to do. Then she saw Elsie.

"Come on," called the latter.

Down the stairs they pushed, down, down. At last, in the basement, they turned into a big bare room, equipped as a cafeteria.

"Want a plate of beans? Here, take a tray," yelled Elsie. "You've got to stand in line."

It was hot and crowded, but Myra felt a little thrill of excitement at being part of this big busy group of workers. She was doing real work; she was earning her own pay; she was almost grown up.

Ten days passed. Then, as Myra entered her home, after a long day's work, her mother called to her. "The truant officer has been here," she said. "She says that you must come back to school or your father will be arrested."

Myra was scared. "But I've left school," she said. "Why must I go back? You never went to school after you were twelve. I'm thirteen, and I want to work."

Answer Myra's question. Why must she go back to school? Why could her mother leave at twelve?

Reference: Abstract Pennsylvania Labor Law.

## CHAPTER II

### MYRA GOES BACK TO SCHOOL; BEFORE THERE WERE LABOR LAWS

Myra dressed very slowly the next morning. She felt cross and rebellious. "A big, strong girl like I am, have to sit with babies!"

At school she was sent to the principal's office. "So you have been breaking the law," said the principal.

"I didn't know that I was," gulped Myra. "But I don't see why we have such a law. If I want to go to work, why can't I? It won't hurt me."

"There was a time when there was no law against child labor," the principal replied. "Would you like to know what happened to children then?" She took a book from her desk, opened it, and handed it to Myra. . . .

At the end of a year, however, Myra was still anxious to work and again went to the clothing factory.

#### PROBLEMS

1. Read what Myra found in the book.
2. What was the effect of having no laws on the hours of labor? The conditions of labor? The health of the child? The education of the child? The future of the child?

Reference: Cheyney's *Readings in English History*, pp. 692-94.

### CHAPTER XVI

#### MYRA AND JIM FACE A PROBLEM

It was two months after their marriage that Myra said to Jim, "It seems as if pay day would never come. I know it hasn't been two weeks since you got your last pay check, but we need another already."

"We sure do," agreed Jim. "Where does the money go, Myra?"

Myra sighed. "Goodness, I don't know. It just goes—as if it had wings."

"But some folks manage to live quite comfortably and even save money," Jim remarked. "There's Sam Thompson, one of the fellows at the factory, who is buying a home of his own, and there's Jerry Smith, who was sick for a year but managed to get along with what he had saved."

"Well, there is something wrong," decided Myra. "Ask them how they do it, Jim. If we keep on like this, we shall go to the poorhouse when we grow old."

Two days later Jim was paid.

"Feels mighty good to have some money once more," he said as they sat down to supper. "Why don't you invite Marion over to supper some night?"

"I shall. And Dorothy, too. She's awfully nice." Myra was pleased at the suggestion. "What shall we have to eat? We can have a lovely supper since you've just been paid, and then we'll go to a show afterward."

#### PROBLEMS

1. What big problem faced Myra and Jim shortly after they were married?
2. Why did they always run short of funds before the next pay day? What did they need to do?
3. Give four reasons why everyone should save.

## CHAPTER XVII

## THE BUDGET SOLVES THE PROBLEM

Marion and Dorothy arrived about an hour before supper and were chatting merrily with Myra when Jim entered.

"It's great to have you," Jim said cordially as he shook hands with the girls. Then, turning quickly to Myra, he said, "I've learned how they do it. They make a budget."

"What? Do what?"

"I'll clean up and then explain," he answered.

In a very short time Jim returned. He began enthusiastically. "Those fellows who save make a budget."

"But what's that?" asked Myra. Marion looked as blank as Myra. Dorothy alone seemed to understand.

"They plan just how much they will spend for each item, say, for a month."

"But how can they?" Marion, too, was interested.

"Well," went on Jim, "one of the fellows sets aside 50 per cent of his salary, that is, one half, for food and lodging, 15 per cent for clothing, and 25 per cent for recreation, education, charity, and miscellaneous. That leaves 10 per cent that he saves."

"That's how father and mother managed to send me to the normal school," interposed Dorothy. "It's really wonderful. And the funny part of it is that you save and seem to have more than you had before. I guess it's because you don't buy unnecessary things."

During supper they talked of nothing but budgets. Then they left the table and, with Dorothy's help, began making out their budgets. The time fairly sped. "It's nine o'clock!" exclaimed Dorothy.

Jim's eyes met Myra's. "It's too late to go to the show," he decided.

Myra's eyes twinkled as she answered, "According to my budget, we couldn't go anyway. We can afford only one movie a week, and we went last night."

## PROBLEMS

1. How did Jim's friends manage to save?
2. What is a budget?
3. How had a budget helped Dorothy?
4. Why should everyone make a budget?
5. How did Jim suggest that Myra and he divide their income?
6. Using Jim's suggestions, make a budget for yourself. Look in the "want-ad" columns of a newspaper for a position which you will be able to fill when you leave school. Find one which states the wages. On the basis of these wages, make a budget for a week, for a month.

Reference: *Let Budget Help* (a pamphlet published by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company).

The following is a sample assignment in English.

1. There's one thing certain: in an office your appearance has much to do with your success; and your clothing makes up fully 50 per cent of your appearance. Here are several topics for oral themes on this rather important subject. Describe in detail what you do in each case and why you do it. See me before you decide on your topic.
  - a) Brushing and airing clothing
  - b) Protecting clothing
  - c) Suggestions for neatness (don't forget shoes)
  - d) Pressing
  - e) Cleaning spots
    - (1) Grease
    - (2) Milk
    - (3) Sugar
    - (4) Machine oil
    - (5) Coffee and tea
    - (6) Fruit
    - (7) Grass
    - (8) Rust
    - (9) Blood
    - (10) Ink
2. Take stock of your wardrobe. If you could buy a new outfit, just what would you get and why—materials and cost? What different situations would you need clothes for?
3. You have a coat, perfectly good, that you have outgrown. Write a note to a cousin asking her whether she can use the coat. This is a *hard* note to write.
4. An aunt has sent you a box of things in the hope that you may find some things in it that you can use in some fashion. Write a note to your aunt.

The rest of the school benefits from having a large number of the less competent pupils isolated from the regular classes. All who remain in them, however, do not have high I.Q.'s, but after the first year the most hopeless are eliminated. There are still borderline cases that struggle on and fail when they come to stenography. Furthermore, there are the low I.Q.'s in the academic course who do not want to go to work and who are not interested in the commercial course or in the extension class. We enforce the ruling that no subject may be taken more than twice and try to convince the parents that they are doing their children great harm in keeping them at a task that is beyond their ability.

Twenty-seven girls were tested during March, April, and May,

1924. The battery of tests used included the Woodworth and Wells Hard Directions Test, the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Test (Eighth Grade), the Woody Arithmetic Test, a starred or shortened form of the Binet-Simon test, and two performance tests—the Dearborn Formboard and the Witmer Cylinders. In the case of the Binet test, the directions were, of course, followed; there was more coaxing, however, than would ordinarily be allowed. In each test every possible advantage was given, and the time element was not considered; the examiner feels certain, therefore, that the I.Q.'s would be slightly lower had the examination been conducted by a stranger in a regular clinic. The lowest I.Q. was 66; the highest, 90. Five girls did not pass any test at the fourteen-year level. Seventeen failed on one or more tests at the twelve-year level, but in these cases it was taken for granted that the basal age was ten, because it would have taken too much time to carry the investigation farther. No tests were passed at the sixteen-year level except the memory-span test and the one giving credit for a better interpretation of fables than that expected from a twelve-year-old child. Only eight girls could define a sufficient number of words to pass the test at the fourteen-year level. The Binet I.Q. alone is not adequate as a basis for diagnosing or measuring a child's "intelligence" in its much used sense. It does, however, give a good picture of his intellect (knowledge organized and usable), language proficiency, social orientation, home training, and the social level of his group.

The memory-span results for this group range from 5 to 9. An auditory and visual digit memory span of at least 5 is considered necessary for normalcy at the fifteen-year level, and one of 6 is needed for successful high-school work. A long reverse memory span seems to indicate a specific ability, the relation of which to the individual's mental level is not clear. It is considered very significant, diagnostically, when a child of this age cannot reproduce from memory a series of four digits in the reverse order. Three girls in this group failed to reproduce more than 3; all the other performances were correspondingly poor.

The Woody test gives a fair measure of a child's ability to deal with the four fundamental operations in arithmetic. A degree of inaccuracy is expected. The examples involving simple fractions

and decimals were invariably incorrect. Only seven girls passed the arithmetic-reasoning test which is at the fourteen-year level of the Binet scale. The reading test shows in the rate score the number of words the child is able to read per minute. All the girls were below the median for the eighth grade, their scores correlating with their low I.Q.'s. There does not seem to be any relation between rate and comprehension in this test; the latter is purely arbitrary instead of being expressed as a percentage of the rate score, as would seem logical. The scores in the Woodworth and Wells Hard Directions Test ranged from 13 to 20. Only two were perfect (20). Since good language ability and a rapid rate of reading help a great deal in the solution of this test, one would expect the poor results obtained. Alertness, the ability to respond quickly, is another factor in success.

Performance tests cause a child to give a sample of his behavior under certain conditions which can be analyzed and rated. He shows his comprehension, rate of movement, co-ordination, discrimination, and method of attacking a problem, all of which are elements of his personality. The Dearborn Formboard is a more complex problem than the Witmer Cylinders because the blocks do not fit the spaces and the child must reconstruct the spaces before he can replace the blocks. Ten girls failed completely to do this in the allotted ten minutes; one managed to finish in  $9\frac{1}{2}$  minutes. The time does not indicate the quality of the performance because a child with a very high rate of discharge using the trial-and-error method could make many absurd moves and correct them before another child could execute a well-thought-out plan with no false moves. Only two girls gave qualitatively good performances; all the others used the trial-and-error method, although in the second trial they showed they could learn from experience. These performance tests are also tests of real intelligence, that is, ability to solve new problems.

It is evident that these girls have not the intelligence to do high-school work, but, in working with concrete materials, they exhibit a certain response to training that would contribute toward success in certain non-intellectual occupations. If they could be singled out early in their school life and directed into their proper sphere before the desire for the so-called "white-collar" jobs could become deeply rooted, they would be saved a tremendous amount of disappoint-

ment, time, and misspent energy. It would seem that this is the opportunity of the grammar grades and the junior high school.

It might be interesting to compare the examination of these girls with a study made by Dr. Leaming and reported in the *Psychological Clinic*.<sup>1</sup> She examined four hundred girls of the entering class in a Philadelphia high school and found to her amazement a range in I.Q.'s of from 69 to 143. Her conclusion is that "the mental level of high-school normalcy extends much lower on the scale of general competency than has hitherto been considered possible." To discuss this further one would need to define "high-school normalcy." Is it expressed by ability to enter high school or ability to graduate? She did not investigate the class standing of her subjects; nor has any follow-up work been published to show whether the pupils possessing the low I.Q.'s succeeded in passing one year of high-school work. It might be that these are the girls who do not succeed and who are possible candidates for such an extension course as is here described.

<sup>1</sup>Rebecca E. Leaming, "Tests and Norms for Vocational Guidance at the Fifteen-Year-Old Performance Level," *Psychological Clinic*, XIV (December, 1922), 193-220.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Nationalistic propaganda in school textbooks.*—Since the rise of the modern state the school has been very generally employed throughout the Western World as an instrument of nationalism. As the church in an earlier age used the school to inculcate in the rising generation "sound" theological doctrine, so the state has used it to teach "sound" political doctrine. The full significance of this fact and of its bearing on world-peace has seldom been grasped by those working in the school. Teachers and administrators have often followed unwittingly the lines laid down for them by social forces which they did not understand or perhaps even discern. In the teaching of patriotism particularly have the schools suffered from a form of social myopia. That the school is to perform its functions somewhat more intelligently in the future than in the past is suggested by the appearance of various studies of this problem. In France the Dotation Carnegie has studied the post-war schoolbooks of several countries. In the United States Bessie L. Pierce has investigated the teaching of history in the schools over a long period of years. And now there comes from the press a report<sup>2</sup> of a series of studies on the relation of the school curriculum to the cause of international peace.

Mr. Scott has studied the textbooks employed in the schools of France, Germany, and England. In order to gain access to these books, he visited the libraries of Paris, Leipzig, and London. His purpose was to discover the extent to which a special national bias is reflected in the treatment of historical topics, particularly those topics which concern the relations of one nation with another. His chief method was to compare the treatment accorded the same historical event in the textbooks employed in the schools of the countries involved. The scope of the book is revealed by the following chapter titles: "Education and the Problem of World Peace," "The Patriotic Purpose in French Education," "England Interpreted in the French Textbooks," "Germany and the Great War in the French Textbooks," "Toward International Peace," "Nationalism versus Internationalism in German Decrees and Programs," "The German Textbooks," "Nationalism and Internationalism in British Education," "France in the British Textbooks," "Germany and the Great War in the British Textbooks," and "The United States in British Textbooks."

<sup>2</sup> Jonathan French Scott, *The Menace of Nationalism in Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. 224.

The author proves conclusively that the school is being used in these three countries—in varying degrees, to be sure—to distort the facts of history, to inculcate an unenlightened patriotism, to foster the growth of prejudices, to perpetuate international ill will and misunderstanding, and to create a general psychology in the coming generation which will make easy and natural the recourse to war in the settlement of disputes between the nations. The darker side of the picture can best be presented through a few quotations. In speaking of certain books used in the French schools, the author says that "the school is helping to perpetuate the myth of the maimed Belgian children" (p. 73). In other books "children are taught that the Germans devastated the lands, burned the harvests, and massacred inoffensive people; that they pitilessly cut down the trees, bombarded the beautiful cathedral of Rheims, set fire to hundreds of cities and villages; and that other German brutes boasted of killing the wounded" (p. 73). According to one of the German textbooks, "three varieties of lust constitute the original cause of the [world] war: French lust for revenge, Russian lust for power, English lust for wealth" (p. 122). In another German textbook is the following quotation: "Comrades, for the present grievous suffering of our Fatherland, at bottom we must thank our old hereditary enemies, the French" (p. 124). In England the British Association for the Advancement of Science asserts that "the British Empire is the greatest human institution under heaven, the greatest secular organization for good" (p. 149). Hundreds of other references could be given from the textbooks and from the official and unofficial pronouncements of these countries to show how the schools are being used as powerful instruments to foster a narrow nationalism and to make difficult the way of international peace, but these few quotations must suffice. Anyone interested should read the book itself.

There is another side of the picture, however. The future for international peace is not so hopeless as these quotations would lead one to believe. In every country will be found forces working in both directions: forces working for misunderstanding and war and forces working for understanding and peace. In France the government itself has at times opposed chauvinistic teachings in the schools. There are also vigorous minorities in this country which are demanding either that history be eliminated from the program of the primary school or that history textbooks be written in "a spirit of truth, of peace, and of good will." In Article 148 of the new German constitution we find the injunction that henceforth "moral education, civic sentiment, and personal and professional service in the spirit of German patriotism and international reconciliation" are to be inculcated in all German schools. "Thus," writes Scott regarding this constitutional provision, "for the first time the lofty ideals of international solidarity through education found expression in the constitution of a great country" (p. 96). In England, because of the decentralized character of the school system, the hand of the government seems to rest lightly on the schools: If the study of the author is itself impartial, it would seem that, for the most part, international events are represented without violent bias in the English textbooks. Perhaps

the apparent ease with which the British people threw off the war psychology following the armistice of 1918 is traceable in part to this fairness of the books used in the schools.

Mr. Scott has made an important contribution to the study of education and of educational institutions. If the school is ever to be employed as an instrument for the promotion of international peace, the materials that go into the curriculum will have to be subjected to just the sort of scrutiny that he has made for England, France, and Germany. In our American schools similar studies should be undertaken. It would be most illuminating to find out how the events that have touched the relations of Mexico and the United States are represented in the textbooks of the two countries. Many other studies will suggest themselves to the reader. Only through research of this type will we be made genuinely conscious of the problem and be placed in a position to organize our instruction for the purpose of fostering international good will. If it is to be genuine, such research must guard itself with especial care against the temptation to yield to national bias.

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GEORGE S. COUNTS

*Exploratory work in language.*—The success of general science and mathematics, now fully established in the junior high school curriculum, has inevitably led to experiments in generalizing other subjects. In spite of the opposition of old-line historians, "general social study" is being attempted; and now "general language" is receiving attention in a few experimental centers. Among the pioneers in the latter field is a textbook<sup>1</sup> prepared by a group of six teachers of Hartford, Connecticut, which purports to outline an exploratory course in general language of a semester or a year in length.

Instruction in general language might be justified on any one of three grounds: it might furnish information or develop skills themselves intrinsically valuable; it might give a bird's-eye view of the relative interests, difficulties, and practical values of learning different foreign languages; it might furnish a general-language insight which would materially aid pupils in acquiring an effective control of their mother-tongue as a tool. Instruction in general language might conceivably contribute to all three of these purposes.

Obviously, the present authors have aimed primarily at the second of the objectives stated; they outline an exploratory course. The core of the book, Parts II-V, inclusive, devotes ten "lessons" in succession to Latin, French, Spanish, and German, respectively. Each series of ten units (they should not be named "lessons") is organized in the same order and in the same way as are all the others: a "travel" description of the country in question; a lesson in pronunciation; a vocabulary lesson of words dealing with family life; and several other lessons compounded of elementary grammar, word study, and translation

<sup>1</sup> *An Exploratory Course in General Language.* Developed by Lucy Mallary Bugbee, Elma M. Clark, Paul S. Parsons, Ruth S. Green, Donald B. Swett, and Clarice E. Williams. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1926. Pp. xii+258.

exercises. The teacher who would use the book finds very elementary ten-lesson courses in four different languages. Not every class need attempt all, to be sure, but, in attempting two or more of the outlines, any class would have a tryout, of a sort, in two or more foreign-language learning situations. Preceding the four key divisions is Part I, a thirty-two-page readable discussion of the stages of language from the grunts and picture-writing of the cavemen to the English language of the present day. Following the key divisions is Part VI, "Word Study," consisting of fourteen lessons of dictionary work, roots, prefixes, suffixes, and proper names in English. These are the lesson materials found in all elementary "English" textbooks.

Whether or not such instruction has a contribution to make in any or all of the three objectives named, the reviewer does not presume to say. The authors think it has; they have experimented for some years and have used two editions of the book in manuscript form with their own classes. This experimentation is commendable. One thing is certain: the lessons in the four languages are very conservative, distinctly of the order of beginners' books of two decades ago. They would be the despair of teachers of French, for example, who teach by the direct or conversational method. Again, the co-authors, each evidently a "specialist" in his own "language," have sensibly endeavored to co-operate in making a book. The reader wonders whether any one of them could teach the same group of children all four languages equally well. Finally, since this innovation, as all others, would add something to a curriculum already desperately overcrowded, we have a right to ask whether the new is more valuable than the old which it must supplant.

Both the thoughtfully planned classroom experimentation of the Hartford teachers, now culminating in materials which will enable others to experiment, and the pioneering spirit of the textbook company, which is willing to provide funds for necessary school experimentation, are highly commendable. This way lies progress.

R. L. LYMAN

*The junior high school as a community.*—The continued growth of the junior high school movement is indicated by the expansion of its literature. After the first publications, covering the subject as a whole, junior high school literature has gone through the usual evolution; studies of the several elements of the problem have been made from time to time as these elements have attracted special attention. Thus, the writer on junior high school subjects has two choices to make: to write about the whole subject or a part of it and to write philosophically or descriptively.

A recent book<sup>1</sup> deals in descriptive fashion with one phase of junior high school administration. The author, with the aid of a group of his students, conducted an investigation of common practices in the administration of extra-

<sup>1</sup> Paul W. Terry, *Extra-Curricular Activities in the Junior High School*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1926. Pp. 122.

curriculum activities in junior high schools. The questionnaire method was used, eighty-two schools contributing data. As these schools were of all sizes, the data are representative and are helpful to the principal regardless of the enrolment in his school. The book is replete with tables showing, in terms of the number of schools, the range and mode of extra-curriculum practice. The kinds of activities reported, methods of schedule-making and organization, and standards for the selection of activities are set forth. There is a very illuminating discussion of the functions of the home room and of the home-room teacher.

One wonders whether there is, as suggested, need for organized guidance of pupils' choice of clubs. Junior high school clubs are fundamentally "interest" affairs; it may be that adult supervision of the expression of interest in the choice of clubs is out of place.

One who reads hurriedly would get more from the book if the author had generalized fully or even philosophized at the end of each unit of description. As constructed, the work leaves one with the feeling that, in order to make use of it, one must keep a copy at hand.

The chief value of the study lies in its reliable, well-organized, and complete store of information about what junior high schools are doing with respect to extra-curriculum activities. The school administrator who contemplates a program of this type of work can find no better assembly of precedents for his guidance. The relation of extra-curriculum activities to citizenship is well brought out; the book renders a much needed service in its effort to develop the conception of the school as a community rather than as an institution.

H. H. RYAN

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

*Another treatment of extra-curriculum activities.*—E. H. Wilds<sup>1</sup> has arrived at a definition of extra-curriculum activities through the tracing of their development. "Extra-curricular activities are those activities of the school that are outside the traditional curriculum, that have sprung up and developed through the students' own desires and efforts, that are carried on apart from the hours of the regular school program, and that are participated in without the rewards of regular school credit" (pp. 4-5).

While extra-curriculum activities have grown up outside the traditional curriculum, the objectives of the two are not opposed. The new curriculum, with its enriched and revitalized materials may in time eliminate the dualism in nomenclature. The activities themselves will remain and demand supervision regardless of the form the administration of them may take. The project method has been an adaptation in classroom method but has not gone so far as the special-activity program in developing the social, vocational, civic, moral, leisure, and leadership abilities.

Of equal significance are the author's claims for the bearing the special

<sup>1</sup> Elmer Harrison Wilds, *Extra-curricular Activities*. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. xii+274. \$2.00.

activities have on the laws of learning. The law of self-activity, the law of apperception, the law of motivation, the law of socialization, and the law of individualization are even more applicable in the special activity than in the customary classroom exercise. Notwithstanding the criticism of some notable educators of the disproportionate emphasis placed on the two types of activities, studies have not revealed any alarming differences in scholarship between participants and non-participants.

The proposed plan for the administration of extra-curriculum activities is similar to the city-manager plan, with a teacher supervisor in the one instance corresponding to the city manager in the other. Six boards—the athletic board, the forensic board, the social board, the music board, the literary board, and the morals board—with faculty sponsors and student chairmen in all instances, make up the scheme of organization. Such a plan centralizes authority and prevents problems in management, which are certain to arise in a haphazard arrangement.

The author has selected very well the topics of major interest and concern to those who are managing, or are expecting to manage, a modern school plant. The many practical problems in management, such as finances, control of membership by credit or honor points, faculty attitude and responsibility, centralized control, pupil participation in self-government, and interrelation of extra-curriculum and curricular activities, are discussed in the light of typical examples taken from the literature on the subject. The summary of experiments in administration of extra-curriculum activities given in tabular form (p. 194) is helpful to the busy school man. The characteristic features of sixteen different schools are pointed out. With no intention of misleading the reader, the author has used the wrong tense of verbs in speaking of responsible school principals. For example, Jesse B. Davis is not the present principal of the Grand Rapids High School, and he has not been for several years. There have been three principals in the University High School of the University of Chicago since Franklin W. Johnson. No less noticeable is the reference to J. F. Wellemeyer as principal of the high school at Oklahoma City. It would seem that the author's study of conditions in one hundred high schools made ten years ago and reported in the November, 1917, number of the *School Review* could have been revised and thus have been made more valuable to the present-day reader.

The first four chapters, which deal with the development, the justification, the varieties and extent, and the evils and problems of extra-curriculum activities, are well written and give excellent summaries of these particular topics.

The text has been prepared for use in normal-school and college classes in education. The inclusion of questions and topics for investigation and references at the end of each chapter makes it no less adaptable for professional study in high-school faculty groups. Recent extended bibliographies from other sources would greatly supplement the work of the author.

THOMAS M. DEAM

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*A manual for the teaching of social science.*—While the majority of the texts in citizenship are much alike in content, organization, and presentation, there appears to be at least one marked difference in the point of view of the makers of these texts. Some authors approach the teaching of social science by the use of the interpretative method; others endeavor to realize the same objectives through the presentation of concrete data and problems to be solved. Believing that theoretical sociology is beyond the realm of high-school instruction, the author of a recent text<sup>1</sup> has provided a manual for the teaching of practical social science by the laboratory method. The author states that the primary object has been to "mobilize the concrete social data of the community for analysis and determination" (p. v.).

The book has twenty-five chapters, which are grouped into four parts: "The Citizen and Society," "Production and General Welfare," "Social Welfare," and "Community Work." The subject matter of the text is necessarily much like that of other books in the field, but, in organization and presentation, it is apparently weaker than the majority of texts in social science. Part I has chapters on "The Field of Study," "Population and Its Distribution," "The Migration of People," and "Occupations." It is questionable whether the chapter on "Occupations" should be included in Part I. It seems logically to belong in Part II, "Production and General Welfare," which has chapters on "Production and Society," "Agriculture and Rural Life," "Transportation and Communication," "World Commerce," and "National Resources." In Part III there are chapters on "Education," "Health and Well-Being," "Income and Standards of Living," and "Causes and Prevention of Destitution." The chapter on "Income and Standards of Living," particularly since the major part of it deals with income, might well have been placed in Part II. Part IV, "Community Work," has but two chapters. The first chapter, "Community Organization and Work," is a discussion of finance. For high-school purposes, probably more attention should have been given to community life and its problems. Part II is the best-organized section in the book. As a whole, the text is weak in organization; the parts lack unity, and the chapters lack co-ordination.

It has been the conscious aim of the author to include a vast amount of factual information, "to give the essential data of social science in the concrete" (p. v). Accordingly, the text contains 142 tables and 79 diagrams. Following each group of data is a series of problems; there are approximately 630 problems. Of the 368 pages of material, there are only 59 which are not broken by a table, diagram, or list of problems. An unusually large percentage of space is devoted to statistics. True, the book is in design a laboratory text, and it has been the purpose of the author to present all the data for analysis and interpretation, but it is questionable whether it is pedagogically sound to present to high-school pupils such a statistical array. Is the high-school pupil likely to be attracted by such a book? Not a single picture or illustration greets his eye.

<sup>1</sup> John A. Lapp, *Practical Social Science*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. x+372.

As a reference book for social-science courses, *Practical Social Science* is probably the outstanding book in the field. The essential materials of social science in the concrete which have been gathered together in a single volume should prove an invaluable addition to any social-science classroom library. Social-science teachers will welcome it as such. It is hardly suitable, however, as a text for the classroom.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

*The psychology of learning.*—Teachers have been too much interested in the accumulation of a selected body of information on the part of the pupil and have neglected the development of effective habits of work and study. In reality, the establishment of desirable methods of work is more important than the memorization of the detailed information of a given course, since the methods of work will carry over to the activities of after-school life, whereas much of the information memorized is forgotten. However, it is a hopeful sign that much interest is being shown at present in the development of better habits of work and study; the supervised- or directed-study movement is a case in point. Even in the college field it is coming to be recognized that students waste a great deal of time and form wrong habits of work because of inadequate knowledge of proper methods of procedure. That an attempt is being made to correct these shortcomings is evidenced by the number of publications appearing in this field.

A new book<sup>1</sup> aims to assemble, systematize, and interpret the facts of the psychology of learning for the benefit of students in orientation classes and special how-to-study courses, teachers in charge of courses in supervised study, department heads in business and industry, and individuals interested in increasing their own efficiency. The book is divided into five parts, which include twenty-three chapters. Part I shows the need for greater personal efficiency and analyzes the process of learning to work. Part II is a treatment of the physiological and psychological factors involved in work and study: conservation of energy, sleep, incentives, native endowment, ideals, attention, and will. Part III is a discussion of aids that promote effective work: forming habits, planning one's work, analyzing jobs, making and using a working schedule, making external conditions favorable, and developing interest in one's attainments. Part IV is an application of the psychology of learning to certain specific tasks: investigating topics, memorizing, reasoning, and giving full attention to continuous work. Part V points out some of the dangers of pseudo-efficiency in study and work.

The author has presented his material in a manner that is intelligible and interesting. Because of his own investigations, he is well qualified to discuss the psychology of learning; he has also drawn upon the experimental evidence

<sup>1</sup> William F. Book, *Learning How To Study and Work Effectively*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1926. Pp. xviii+476.

in the field. Certain tabular material is presented for which there are neither headings nor numbers. The volume includes practical exercises and experiments, which accompany the explanation of the principles and laws discussed. Selected references are given at the end of each chapter. A number of blanks, forms, and figures are reproduced. Numerous apt illustrations of the principles and laws discussed are drawn from real life. Those who are interested in the development of more effective habits of work and study will find the volume well worth careful reading.

CARTER V. GOOD

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*Personalizing social science.*—There is a marked tendency in social-science work, especially that in the junior high school, to make the content of the courses less objective and increasingly personal in character. A striking example of this tendency is found in a recent book<sup>1</sup> which takes as its starting-point the thesis that "character education and training for citizenship are identical processes" (p. v).

Working from this point of view, the authors have constructed a text of twenty-seven chapters. Although they are not so arranged, these chapters may be grouped in four major sections. The first section is made up of three closely connected chapters on the dignity and value of American citizenship, called, respectively, "An American's Inheritance," "American Citizenship," and "We, the People." The second section is a group of five chapters dealing with "The Good Citizen in the Home," "The Good Citizen in the School," "The Good Citizen at Work," "The Good Citizen at Play," and "The Good Citizen and His Government." The third section includes nine chapters, which treat, in general, the problems of community life. There are three chapters on health and the prevention of disease, one on the prevention of accidents, two on protection against crime and lawlessness, one dealing with "The Care of the Unfortunate," one on "How the People Are United by Modern Means of Communication and Transportation," and one on "An Attractive Community." The fourth section, also made up of nine chapters, deals with the political rights, relationships, and duties of the citizen. The chapters are entitled, "Working Together for the Common Good through Political Communities," "The Constitution, the Fundamental Law of the Land," "The Organization of Our National Government," "Our National Government at Work," "State and Local Government," "Law Making," "How We Select Our Public Officials," "The Place of Political Parties in a Democracy," and "How the Government Is Supported." The book ends with a chapter entitled, "Good Conduct Is Good Citizenship."

The book necessarily presents much the same material as that now found in most of the citizenship texts. New illustrative material is used to excellent

<sup>1</sup> Edwin C. Broome and Edwin W. Adams, *Conduct and Citizenship*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xii+422.

purpose, but the distinguishing mark of the text is its note of idealistic moral training. In recent years, the writers of textbooks in citizenship have carefully avoided obvious moralizing, believing, perhaps, that the most effective means of character education is the presentation of civic and social material of such nature as to show the need for good conduct without specifically drawing the moral to adorn the tale. Whether such a course is effective is not to be determined here, but those teachers who desire a more obvious and direct moral teaching will, for the most part, find this book satisfactory.

A matter which may be confusing to the pupil is the new conception of the term "community" used by the authors. A community is defined as "any group of people" (p. 30), whereas most texts—and most children—conceive of a community as a definitely located group, such as a town or a village. Another possible cause of confusion to the reader is the selection of chapter titles. Some of the titles overlap to a large extent; others do not introduce adequately the chapter content. This is especially noticeable in chapters xx and xxi. The former, entitled, "The Organization of Our National Government," is really a discussion of the executive branch, while the latter, entitled, "Our National Government at Work," discusses the legislative side of federal affairs. On the other hand, some chapters stand out as noteworthy contributions to the organization and presentation of social-science material. Among these are the chapters entitled, "An American's Inheritance," "The Prevention of Accidents," "An Attractive Community," which deals with both recreation and civic beauty, and especially "How We Select Our Public Officials."

In form, the entire book is well conceived. The use of illustrative anecdotes and descriptions of specific city arrangements, even in such matters as methods of street cleaning, is fascinating to adult as well as child readers. There are many apt, historical quotations, as in the title of the third chapter, "We, the People." The introductory paragraphs of most of the chapters are excellent, and a noteworthy feature of the book is a short "remember" sentence rather than a summary at the close of each chapter. There are few charts but many excellent illustrations.

In general, the book is well suited for use as a text, and, even where not so used, parts of it are extremely valuable for collateral reference. Although it is indubitably a difficult task to combine informational material with moral training in such a manner that the combination will be interesting and instructive and effective as a guide of conduct for the child of junior high school age, the authors have done the task in a way worthy of considerable praise. The defects of their production, greatly overshadowed by the advantages, may be ascribed to the difficulties of their task.

HOWARD E. WILSON

*Colonial stories.*—Historical fact and idealism have been effectively combined in a book<sup>1</sup> by Alice Collins Gleeson. That the history of colonial Rhode

<sup>1</sup> Alice Collins Gleeson, *Colonial Rhode Island*. Pawtucket, Rhode Island: Automobile Journal Publishing Co., 1926. Pp. 260.

Island might be understood was her purpose, and this end has been accomplished through the medium of an intimate account of the ideals, habits, and customs of the characters who made Rhode Island history. The strong spirit of these forbears is intimately portrayed by their amusing customs and laws, with a resulting picture both really vivid and ideally romantic.

The book is developed through the use of informal discussions of interesting phases of colonial life. Following five or six topics covering the actual settlement of the state are topics that are unusually appealing to boys and girls of junior high school age. The nature of these topics can be seen from the following significant titles: "Market Day," "The Gavel and the Powdered Wig," "When the Dips Were Lighted," "Polly Makes Her Sampler," "Hornbook and Reading Board," and "Along the Pequot Trail." Interspersed among these are topics in which the chronological thread of the history is accurately spun. Some of the most appealing are: "When Rhode Island Had Her Tea Party," "The Revolution," "Friends in Need," and "When Washington Came to Providence."

A valuable aid in stimulating interest in contemporary writing is lent by the excerpts which introduce the various chapters. These pieces of the best literature of those days are unusual and significant enough to attract the attention of the reader.

The quaint pleasantries of the times are so interwoven with a minimum amount of factual material that the book reads not like a text but rather like a novel. The factual material is authentic; the reader is certain to gain a new historical attitude from the varied material of the book.

The value of a work of this nature in interesting boys and girls in colonial America cannot be overestimated. It is written with charming informality and sincerity.

ROBERT B. WEAVER

*College-preparatory algebra.*—Reorganization of secondary-school mathematics along the lines of unification and correlation of the special branches has been a slow process. Many high schools have been reluctant to change from the separate courses in algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. An algebra text<sup>1</sup> recently published is intended to meet the demands of such high schools by providing a second course in algebra.

The text is a typical course in traditional algebra and, like most such texts, is designed to satisfy the requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board. In the first part of the book several chapters are devoted to a thorough review and a comprehensive treatment of the topics and algebraic principles considered in the authors' *Introductory Algebra*. As special features of the book, the following might be mentioned: (1) an unusually large number of well-chosen problems designed to give practice in formulating and interpreting equations, (2) a consistent use of systematic and logical checking of results, (3) a sufficient number of review exercises and tests, and (4) fifteen pages of mathematical

<sup>1</sup> Alan Johnson and Arthur W. Belcher, *Second Course in Algebra*. Boston: F. M. Ambrose Co., 1926. Pp. vi+322.

tables carried to four decimal places. The last chapter is devoted to numerical trigonometry, which the teacher may use advantageously in connection with the chapter on ratio and proportion and the chapter on logarithms.

The text is teachable and well adapted for a second course in algebra. It should find favor with the conservative teacher of the traditional type of mathematics.

J. S. GEORGES

### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E. *Principles of Rural School Administration*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xvi+380.

CRAWFORD, CLAUDE C. *Methods of Study*. Los Angeles, California: Claude C. Crawford (3351 University Avenue), 1926. Pp. 164.

HOLLIS, A. P. *Motion Pictures for Instruction*. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. xviii+450. \$3.00.

JONES, ARTHUR J. *Education and the Individual*. New York: Century Co., 1926. Pp. xiv+226. \$2.00.

LOWTH, FRANK J. *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xii+564.

MCCARTHY, RAPHAEL C. *The Measurement of Conation*. Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1926. Pp. 106.

OLCOTT, MASON. *Village Schools in India*. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1926. Pp. xii+236. \$1.25.

*Readings in Educational Psychology*. Edited by Charles Edward Skinner, Ira Morris Gast, and Harley Clay Skinner. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1926. Pp. xviii+834.

REEDER, WARD G., and PAISLEY, ETHAN A. *Trends of School Costs in Ohio*. Contributions in School Administration, Number 3. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1926. Pp. x+34.

RUCH, G. M., and OTHERS. *Objective Examination Methods in the Social Studies*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1926. Pp. viii+116. \$1.60.

WILSON, GUY MITCHELL. *What Arithmetic Shall We Teach?* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926. Pp. viii+150. \$1.20.

#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BAROJA, Pfo. *Zalacain el aventurero*. Edited with notes and vocabulary by Arthur L. Owen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926. Pp. xxii+220. \$1.00.

DE ALARCÓN, D. PEDRO A. *El sombrero de tres picos*. Edited with introduction, footnotes, exercises, and vocabulary by Charles B. Qualia. Richmond, Virginia: Johnson Publishing Co., 1927. Pp. xxii+256.

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GLEASON, CLARENCE W. *A Latin Primer*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1926. Pp. xiv+294. \$1.25.

MORTON, T. S. *Legends of Gods and Heroes: A First Latin Reader*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xviii+180.

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ROBINS, HELEN J., and PERKINS, AGNES F. *An Introduction to the Study of Rhetoric*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926 [revised]. Pp. xii+358.

ROEHM, ALFRED I., and MANCHESTER, PAUL T. *Laboratory Exercises for the Warshaw and Bonilla Elements of Spanish*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1926. Pp. 92. \$0.60.

YBARRA, ALEJANDRO. *Método práctico: A Course in Spanish Conversation*. Revised by Alfredo Elías. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926. Pp. x+326. \$1.48.

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AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

BURSCH, JAMES FREDERICK, and MELTZER, HYMAN. *The New Examination: Its Construction and Use*. Oregon Agricultural College Bulletin No. 422. Corvallis, Oregon: School of Vocational Education, Oregon State Agricultural College, 1926. Pp. 40.

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FRANZÉN, CARL G. F. *A Comparison of the Results Made on Certain Standardized Tests by Pupils in the Bloomington High School Who Were Taught in Classes of the Same Grade by University Student Teachers and by Regular High School Teachers*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. II, No. 4. Bloomington, Indiana: University Bookstore, 1926. Pp. 22. \$0.50.

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Bulletin No. 9, 1926—*Statistics of Public, Society, and School Libraries, 1923.*

Bulletin No. 14, 1926—*Statistics of Private Commercial and Business Schools, 1924-1925.*

Bulletin No. 17, 1926—*Record of Current Educational Publications.*

Bulletin No. 18, 1926—*Survey of Education in Utah.*

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*Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institution for the Year Ending June 30, 1925.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1926. Pp. xii+634.

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MAVERICK, LEWIS ADAMS. *The Vocational Guidance of College Students.* Harvard Studies in Education, Volume VIII. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1926. Pp. xii+252. \$2.50.

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NOFFSINGER, JOHN S. *Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. vi+146. \$1.50.

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